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PORTRAIT OF YOUTH CRIME

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for

Social Trends Analysis Directorate

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This document is one of a series of research papers that are the result of work done by or for the Directorate. For comments and suggestions please contact the Social Trends Analysis Directorate, 15 Eddy, Hull (Ottawa, K1A 0M5).

The analyst responsible for this document is Linda Demers.

(The French text is the original version)

Texte français disponible

A list of further research reports on youth already published or to be published can be found at the end of this document.

FOREWORD

There has been a continuing interest by the Secretary of State in youth. This interest has recently been heightened by the International Year of Youth in 1985 and by the situation of young people in Canada today, a situation which, although it presents many problems, also offers new opportunities. The importance attached to youth was recently emphasized by the appointment of a Minister of State for Youth.

To achieve a better understanding of Canada's young people, a program of research on youth has been developed by the Social Trends Analysis Directorate. Within the framework of this program, two exploratory documents have been produced and they particularly bring to the fore the embryonic state of research on youth. In order to alleviate this gap, seven research reports focussing on specific aspects of young peoples's lives were undertaken. These reports are aimed at gathering, organizing and analysing the available and most relevant information on the topic.

The present report was prepared by Louise Biron, criminologist, and Danielle Gauvreau, demographer. In preparing this report, they undertook the challenge of sketching a portrait of criminality of young people, drawing from diverse sources of data. Their description forms the first part of this report. The second part presents a more analytical view; it is a study of the concomitant aspects of the criminality of youth using a very informative analytical model. A statistical appendix with all the studied data completes this document, and can be used as a basic data source for future research.

Needless to say, the authors are solely responsible for this study and it should not be taken as reflecting the views of the Department of the Secretary of State.

Jean-Marie Romeder
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SUMMARY

This study is intended as a contribution to the general discussion aimed at examining various aspects of the lives of youths, of which delinquency is only one.

This report presents a portrait of criminality among youth based largely on official statistics, although they are supplemented by data from self-report studies. Our approach therefore addresses only those types of behaviour set out in the criminal codes and associated acts and regulations.

Defining crime from the legal perspective is not an easy task in light of the different agents involved and the difficulty of tracking a given offence through the criminal justice system. In addition, it is difficult to portray crime without touching on its attendant phenomena. This study is therefore divided into two main parts. The first and larger part concerns the portrait of crime among the population aged 15-24 during the past 20 years, showing differences by sex, age and region. It also pays attention to a sub-population, the native youth, and to certain specific offenses, such as vandalism and drug use. The second part deals with the concomitant aspects of youth crime.

Portrait of crime

Portraying crime among the 15-24 year olds in Canada and the provinces over a twenty-year period presents a number of challenges, not the least of which concerns the age breakdown. The age group studied comes under two separate judicial systems, one geared to juveniles, and the other geared to adults. This problem is compounded by the different upper age limits for juveniles set by the provinces. Thus, because of such limitations, the delinquency profile derived from official statistics is unavoidably incomplete, even if optimal use is made of existing information.

Police Statistics

- In 1962 in Canada, 29,000 boys and 3,000 girls were charged with various types of offences. These figures rose significantly over the 20 year period studied, particularly among girls, but appear to have stabilized since 1975 at roughly 74,000 for boys and 14,000 for girls.

- Changes in the definitions of juveniles make it difficult to evaluate the more recent trends. It is possible however to estimate the number of juveniles charged in 1981 at 110,000, compared to some 88,000 in 1977. By comparison, during the same time, the number of adults charged soared from 332,000 to 765,000 for men and from 27,500 to 74,000 for women in 1981.

. Adolescent females accounted for the largest increase, their numbers rising almost fourfold during the last 20 years. This differential growth by sex may stem from many factors, among them the more prominent behaviour of females in the current context and the social reaction to their behaviour which may change in response to the same influences.

. Among boys, property crimes have dominated from 1962 to the present time.

. Among girls, the most common classes of offences have shifted from criminal code and provincial statute violations and property offences to a polarization around property offences. The same is true of adults, with recent data indicating a predominance of property crimes.

. As indicated by police statistics, crime has increased over the past twenty years. Juveniles, girls and women are the groups most affected by this development.

Self-Report Studies

. A fairly large number of offences escape the official statistics. A different perception of reality can therefore be gained from self-report questionnaires, as they contain information provided by the offenders themselves.

. A self-report study conducted in Montreal shows that 92.8% of individuals aged 12 to 18 committed at least one delinquent act during the past twelve months (Fréchette and LeBlanc, 1979).

. An age breakdown reveals that delinquency increases until age 16-17 and then gradually decreases. Differential behaviour by sex is less pronounced than in the official data. This study also reveals that 20.7% of working-class youths compared to 15.2% of middle-class young people indicate no criminal activity.

Court Statistics

. In 1962, in Canada, 5,034 boys and 761 girls among juveniles were convicted as delinquents. In 1967, the figures had risen by 28% and 34% respectively. The increase among girls appears to be greater in the Western provinces and Quebec.

. The nature of the offences for which young people are found delinquent varies by sex. The two classes of offences that dominate among boys are violent and non-violent property crimes. Among girls, violent and non-violent property crimes and other violations of the criminal code, provincial statutes and federal laws account for 80% of the delinquencies giving rise to conviction.

. In 1980-1981, property offences still resulted in the largest number of court appearances by young people in Canada. A comparison of the provincial court data shows a very small proportion of young people found delinquent in Manitoba and a very high proportion in the Maritimes and Alberta.

. Among adults, the 16-19 age group accounts for a larger proportion of convictions than the 20-24 age group. As well, the increase in the number of persons convicted during the 1962-1972 period appears stronger for females than for males.

. Youth between the ages of 16 and 19 make up the largest proportion of persons convicted of violent crimes against property.

. Sentences vary with the seriousness of the criminal act and sentences pronounced against females are lighter.

Correctional Institutions Statistics

. The number of admissions to Canadian training schools rose from 1,352 in 1964 to 1,437 in 1972 for boys and from 428 to 803 for girls. Quebec and Ontario account for the vast majority of all admissions.

. It appears that girls are placed in an institution more often for protection than for correction.

. Data available for 1977 indicate that 30% of the 9,252 males incarcerated in Canadian penitentiaries were under 25 years of age. It is noteworthy that only a negligible proportion of persons admitted to federal penitentiaries went beyond high school.

Concomitant aspects of crime

The criminal justice system is comprised mainly of "losers", the people who have been caught. It is important to determine just how far their losses go. This can be done by examining the concomitant aspects of crime.

To explain delinquent behaviour by adolescents, a heavy reliance has been placed on Hirschi's theory of social control. This theory has the immeasurable advantage of having been verified by a considerable body of data. In addition, it is applicable both to official statistics and to self-report responses on delinquency.

Hirschi specifies four elements as constituting the preferred social bond: attachment, commitment, involvement and belief.

Studies of young adolescents in Montreal have shown that the attachement to the family is particularly important. Parental supervision of children's activities and friends stands out most in relation to delinquency. The more control exists, the less young people engage in criminal behaviour. An inadequate family environment can have serious consequences in this regard. The family holds a predominant place in conversation, especially among girls, even when they live in a foster home. The affective component is a major factor in the choice of friends. Given that 70% of youths admit to stealing in the company of accomplices, it can be seen that the choice of friends has a major influence on conduct. This influence is even greater where family bonding is tenuous.

With regard to commitment and involvement, a plan or career implies activities in both the school and the workplace. Lack of school commitment leads to school maladjustment, which in turn leads to a pattern of deviant behaviour. For those who fail both academically and on the job market, the double failure and feeling of drift may encourage delinquent behaviour. Delinquency may provide a certain gratification to adolescents who are losers as far as conventional expectations are concerned.

The importance of belief in relation to delinquency is clear. The more a young person believes that a given type of behaviour is wrong, the less he or she engages in that behaviour. Study and survey results reveal a strong trend toward conformity and traditional values among youth.

Some data indicate that it is important to react to delinquency, but that the reaction should not necessarily involve the police and the courts. Ideally, society should exercise informal control over its members throughout the socialization process.

The matter of cost cannot be avoided when dealing with crime control. In 1982, the prison population comprised an average of 8,938 inmates at an average annual cost of $41,696. Calculations can easily be made from such figures. In addition to material costs, crime has social costs (unemployment, loss of emotional ties, disruption of working life and so on). Finally, recidivism rates and the lack of highly favourable treatment results contribute to a picture of some social concern.

In conclusion, it should be noted that in drawing a portrait of crime, we run the risk of magnifying one problem at the expense of others. Clearly most young people are not engaged in a life of crime. In fact, very few are major offenders. It is important to point out that the clientele of the criminal justice system is a fairly homogeneous one comprised of young people who are socio-economically disadvantaged and have little education. Their problems with the law are often part of a body of other family, social, school and economic problems. The interdependence of these problems requires a comprehensive approach which, in order to be effective, cannot focus on just one of them.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Crime and youth make for a combination of indubitable interest. While the object of this report is precisely to shed light on the phenomenon of crime among Canadian young people aged 15-24 over the past twenty years, the approach taken should not blow the issue of youth delinquency out of all proportion or give the impression that youth must bear the full burden of the problems of society[1]. This study is intended instead as a contribution to the general discourse aimed at examining various aspects of the lives of youths, of which delinquency is only one.

Although most of this report is given over to a description of delinquency and its concomitant aspects, it is appropriate in this introduction to define the given approach to this issue and underline its inherent biaises. For, over and above the methodological aspects, which bear directly on the use of statistics and will be discussed later, two key factors of the issue of criminality merit consideration, namely the definition of crime, and social reaction to the phenomenon.

1.1 Definition

Without getting into the conceptual debate waged over the definition of crime[2], we wish to clarify from the outset what we mean by the term. The given method of study addresses only those types of behaviour set out in the criminal codes and associated regulations and legislation. In point of fact, approaching the issue from the legal perspective means that we are falling in line with the definition of crime used by the legislators and subjecting ourselves to the limitations which they have set. Undoubtedly, using this definition restricted to the legal field comprises both advantages and disadvantages.

The advantages involve the sustantial sum of data supplied by various sources (official statistics and self-report data), as well as a more readily definable area of study. In the first instance, we can call on the full body of crime statistics centred on acts which violate a given criminal law and on studies of self-reported delinquency[3]. In the second instance, the advantage is one of convenient access and efficiency.

While the legal definition of crime allows for easier access to the issue, it also entails a number of disadvantages stemming mainly from the fact that it highlights a conventional view of behaviours, leaving aside deviant and marginal conducts as well as behaviour which falls under civil rather that criminal jurisdiction, such conduct being far more difficult to identify and measure (e.g. tax evasion, dangerous driving or adult alcohol abuse). Acts of

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1 As suggested by sensational headlines such as "La jeunesse est apathique, délinquante et suicidaire" ("Youth is Apathetic, Delinquent and Suicidal"), Le Devoir, January 1, 1983, p.38.

2 For further details, consult the excellent study by Pirès, 1983.

3 In self-reported delinquency studies, anonymous subjects voluntarily answer a series of questions on their behaviour.

delinquency have no life of their own, so to speak, but are defined in terms of criteria which may be highly diverse. Ethically, for instance, speaking ill of others may constitute an offence. To take another example, euthanasia may be regarded as a noble, respectful act or as murder, depending on the values upheld by a given society. The same reasoning could be used in connection with abortion.

In short, the problems surrounding the definition of crime can hardly be described as simple and prove particularly significant in a study such as this. Indeed, the portrait drawn here affords only a partial view of the behaviours of young adults. To the extent that the focus is on the legal approach, the phenomenon is unavoidably magnified. Broadening the perspective to encompass moral or social considerations would no doubt expand the number of people involved and the legal aspect would be part of a larger context, thereby losing some of its predominance. It would be interesting, in fact, to consider why some types of behaviour meet with such strong disapproval, while others do not. Why, for instance, is it not considered wrong for a company which is no longer turning a profit to dismiss all its employees? Young people between the ages of 15 and 25 lack the resources which their elders may have and are therefore more visible. This leads to the second factor, namely social reaction.

1.2 Social Reaction

The term "social reaction" refers to a formal response on the part of the police and the courts. This factor merits emphasis since the legal approach rests on facts--derived largely from official statistics--which are to a certain extent a reflection of the attention paid to certain offences and individuals. They also reflect attitudes, values and administrative decisions, which may differ from one region or part of the country to another. The doorway to crime statistics is manned by the police, who take cognizance of an act and decide whether or not to make an arrest. Thus, there exists at this level a discretionary power stemming from such factors as an individual officer's values and knowledge and the policy of his or her department. If, for example, the police are sensitized to the rise in shoplifting and the need for intervention, this type of offence may well receive special attention. Or if public concern over drug abuse is riding high, the police may keep more vigilant watch on the trafficking and use of narcotics. Other examples could be mentioned to underscore the potential impact of a police officer's personal convictions.

The foregoing remarks concern types of offences, but similar attitudes may apply to individuals. Certain persons or groups are more visible than others. A teenage boy walking along the street with a gang is more visible than an adolescent driving an automobile. The residents of crowded neighbourhoods may spend more time on the front steps or the sidewalk than in their gardens or living rooms.

Higher visibility may affect a police officer's perception. To illustrate this, let us consider two groups of adolescents. The first meets on the street corner, is a little rowdy and overruns a few local stores. These youths are known to the police; they create a disturbance. The youths in the second group hold wild parties in their parents' country cottages; they take drugs, drink and amuse themselves by vandalizing neighbouring cottages, then return sight unseen to the city. The police are unaware of their existence;

for all practical purposes, they are invisible. These examples, albeit caricatural, illustrate that visibility may depend on an individual's resources, which in turn enhance or lessen the probability of arrest.

These brief comments on the type of analysis presented in this report are intended to prevent misinterpretation of the data cited here. As has been stated, marginal or deviant types of behaviour will be played down so as to focus on the legal approach. As has also been indicated, even this legal perspective is not exempt from biases linked to the social reaction to certain offences and the groups which commit them. Essentially, then, the portrait of youth crime developed in the first part of this report tells only part of the story, involving the types of behaviour and individuals singled out and punished by the criminal justice system.

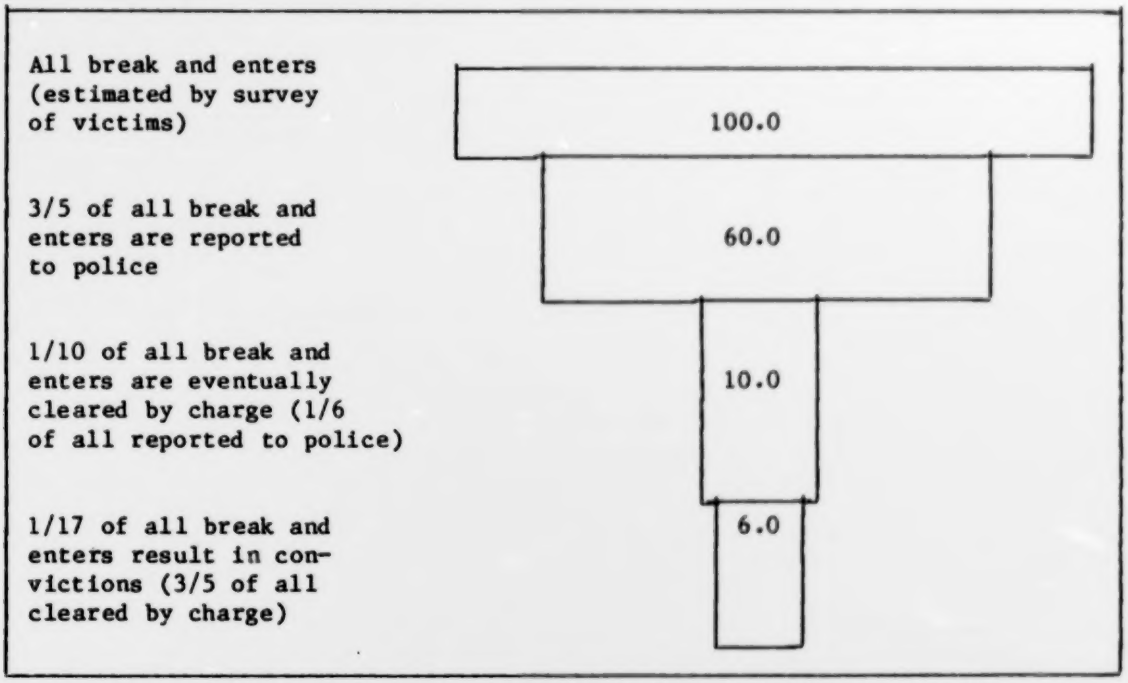
Drawing such a portrait inevitably raises the question of the causes of delinquency, an issue which criminological literature has broached from many different angles. Concomitant aspects of delinquency will be analysed here from the standpoint of a breach of the bond between the individual and society. Such variables as family, friends, school, work and recreational pursuits will be examined to determine the context in which delinquent behaviour develops. The attitudes of youths themselves and of certain agents, law enforcement officers for one, will be discussed, as will the formal and informal social responses to the phenomenon of youth crime. Lastly, we will examine whether or not the present responses are satisfactory. Is social control of delinquency effective? What are the material and social costs of such control? These are extremely pertinent questions in a context wherein crime among juveniles and young adults seems increasingly visible on the one hand, and the various levels of governments are making major budgetary cutbacks on the other.

More precisely, this study is divided into two main parts: the larger part concerns the portrait of crime among the population aged 15 to 25, with special attention to certain offences and groups, e.g. native offenders; the second part deals with the concomitant aspects of youth crime. It is supplemented by a statistical appendix containing the tables and figures used for our analysis. The appendix, which compiles data taken from selected statistical publications, can also serve as the basis for more detailed future studies.

2. PORTRAIT OF CRIME AMONG 15-24 YEAR OLDS

Once a violation of any criminal code provision or any federal or provincial statute or municipal bylaw is reported to the police, a multistage process goes into effect. First, the police decide whether or not to acknowledge and process the offence. Then, a formal charge is laid in the appropriate court and lastly the court hands down a conviction, which may result in a sentence of imprisonment. Thus, defining crime from the legal perspective is never an easy task in light of the different agents involved and the difficulty of tracking a given offence through the criminal justice system (Connidis, 1979). By way of example, the diagram below illustrates the processing of cases through the various stages of the system. The differing widths of the graph indicate the relative volume of offences handled at different points in the system.

FIGURE 1: Attrition of break and enter cases through the criminal justice system


All break and enters (estimated by survey of victims)
100.0
3/5 of all break and enters are reported to police
60.0
1/10 of all break and enters are eventually cleared by charge (1/6 of all reported to police)
10.0
1/17 of all break and enters result in convictions (3/5 of all cleared by charge)
6.0

Source: Solicitor General of Canada, Selected Trends in Canadian Criminal Justice, 1981, p. 10.

As the diagram depicts, the cases processed form distinct sets which shrink in size from one stage to the next. Even more significantly, whereas the original base unit is the offence committed, the subsequent unit is the person charged. Obviously, a single individual may have perpetrated several offences during a given period. Inversely, a given offence may have been perpetrated by several individuals. What is more, not all persons charged, i.e. suspected of the commission of an offence, appear in court. The discontinuity and resulting lack of comparability of the data gathered at each stage clearly poses a general problem.

Other problems arise in attempting to portray youth crime among 15-24 year olds in Canada and the provinces over a period of some 20 years. First and foremost is the matter of age breakdown. Dealing with a specific age group calls upon individual characteristics, implying that the identity of the person charged with an offence is known and that the only data considered here would refer to cases having given rise to charges (see Figure 1). In addition, the age groups studied come under two separate judicial systems, one geared to juveniles and the other geared to adults. This problem is compounded by the different upper age limits for juveniles set by the provinces, as indicated in Table 1. Lastly, the age-specific data provided in the crime statistics are limited and do not allow for all desired analyses, as often happens with information which was initially gathered for more general administrative or research purposes.

For the purposes of this study, we attempt to abide by the age limit of 25 years, but minor divergences were sometimes unavoidable.

TABLE 1: Provincial age limits for charging under the Juvenile Delinquents Act, 1969-82[4]

- Prince Edward Island - New Brunswick - Nova Scotia - Ontario - Saskatchewan - Northwest Territories - Yukon	16 years
- Newfoundland	17 years
- Quebec	18 years
- Manitoba	18 years
- British Columbia: 1960-1973	18 years
1973-1982	17 years
- Alberta: 1960 and 1961	16 years
1962 to October 1978	
. girls	18 years
. boys	16 years
October 1978 to 1982	16 years

Source: Statistics Canada, Crime and Traffic Enforcement Statistics (Police), Catalogue 85-205.

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[4] The new Youth Offenders Act, which was ratified in July 1982 and sets the age limits throughout Canada between 12 and 17 years, does not apply here.

In addition to the primary problem of age breakdown, we were confronted with problems with regard to the comparability of the data over the years and among the different provinces. Notwithstanding the uniform reporting of statistics for all the provinces, a practice begun by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics and continued by its successor, Statistics Canada, changes occurred during the study period. It is therefore far from certain that the same data gathering technique is used throughout the country. More importantly still, the handling of the same case may differ from one province to another, as demonstrated by Hackler (1980) on the basis of juvenile deliquent data. And as indicated by the agency in charge of publishing these data, "research studies and statistical models must recognize that discretionary practices may occur at all stages in the criminal justice system"[5].

As a result of these many limitations, the delinquency profile derived from official statistics is unavoidably incomplete, even if optimal use is made of existing information. These limitations also explain the crudeness of certain of the indexes used, for it is extremely difficult to establish rates which are sufficiently comparable, and we simply gave up the attempt. Note that this particular limitation has little effect on the data pertaining to a single region. However, caution should be exercised in making comparisons between the provinces. Seeking to alleviate these constraints, at least in part, we made supplemental analyses of studies on self-reported delinquency and of longitudinal studies. Self-report studies give a better idea of offences committed but not necessarily reported; the second type of study analyses youth criminal activity from a longitudinal perspective, as opposed to the purely lateral approach taken by official statistics. Lastly, particular attention is paid to the study of crime among native youths and to the analysis of selected offences.

The study period extends from the early 1960s to the present time. However, in order to avoid a needless slew of statistics, we singled out certain years to represent the entire period, while placing more emphasis on the more recent years.

2.1 General Portrait

2.1.1 Police Statistics

2.1.1.1 Preliminary Remarks

The statistics reported by the police bear on the numbers of crimes committed and persons charged. All police departments are required to submit crime reports indicating "the number of offences reported or known to the police, unfounded, actual number, the offences cleared and persons charged"[6]. Of interest to us here are the "charged" statistics, which are reported separately for juveniles and adults by class of offence reported. It is important to bear in mind that juveniles are aged under 18, 17 or 16 depending on the province, meaning that the "adult" category

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5 Statistics Canada, Crime and Traffic Enforcement Statistics (Police), Catalogue 85-205, 1977, p. 15.

6 Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, 1982.

encompasses all persons over the juvenile upper age limit, including those 25 and over. No other age breakdown gives a better accounting of the cohorts of adults under 25 and juveniles 15 and over. Our analysis will thus be confined to these two age categories, which can be regarded as indicators for the age groups under review. Indeed, the oldest juveniles are known to be the most active contributors to juvenile delinquency, while adults under 25 could account for an estimated 50% of all offences committed by adults.

In 1962, a new method of reporting police statistics, known as the Uniform Crime Reporting Program, was introduced nationwide. Although the new reporting system posed some problems of adaptation in the early years, it went unchanged until 1981. In 1974, the number of offence classes reported was increased. However, the data used for the purposes of this report are not affected by that change, as we have aggregated them into several broad classes for more convenient analysis and tracking (see definitions p.133).

Since 1979, the number of juveniles reported has included both youths formally charged and youths screened out of the justice system. Screening accounts for numerous cases in which the police lay no formal charge for a particular offence: the youth is entrusted to parental custody, the Children's Aid Society or some other appropriate agency. The number of these youths has been reported since 1974, but starting in 1979, it has been part of the grand total, thereby inflating the figures compared to those for the previous years. In addition, no gender-specific data have been available for juveniles since 1979.

When two or more offences are committed during the same incident, only the most serious offence is recorded by the police[7]. Unless otherwise indicated, the most serious offence is tabulated in the following tables, which give the number of persons charged by specified major offence classes in Canada, the provinces and the main police metropolitan areas, with the exception of traffic violations.

2.1.1.2 Persons Charged in Canada and the Provinces

In 1962, 29,000 juvenile males and 3,000 juvenile females across Canada were charged with various types of offences (Table A-1.1)[8]. These figures rose significantly over the study period, particularly among girls, but appear to have stabilized since 1975 at roughly 74,000 for boys and 14,000 for girls (Figure 2). The change in the definitions of juveniles makes it difficult to evaluate the more recent trends. Based on the percentage of cases settled out of court in 1977 (40%), it is possible, however, to estimate the number of juveniles charged in 1981 at 110,000, compared to some 88,000 in 1977 (Tables A-1.3 and A-1.5).

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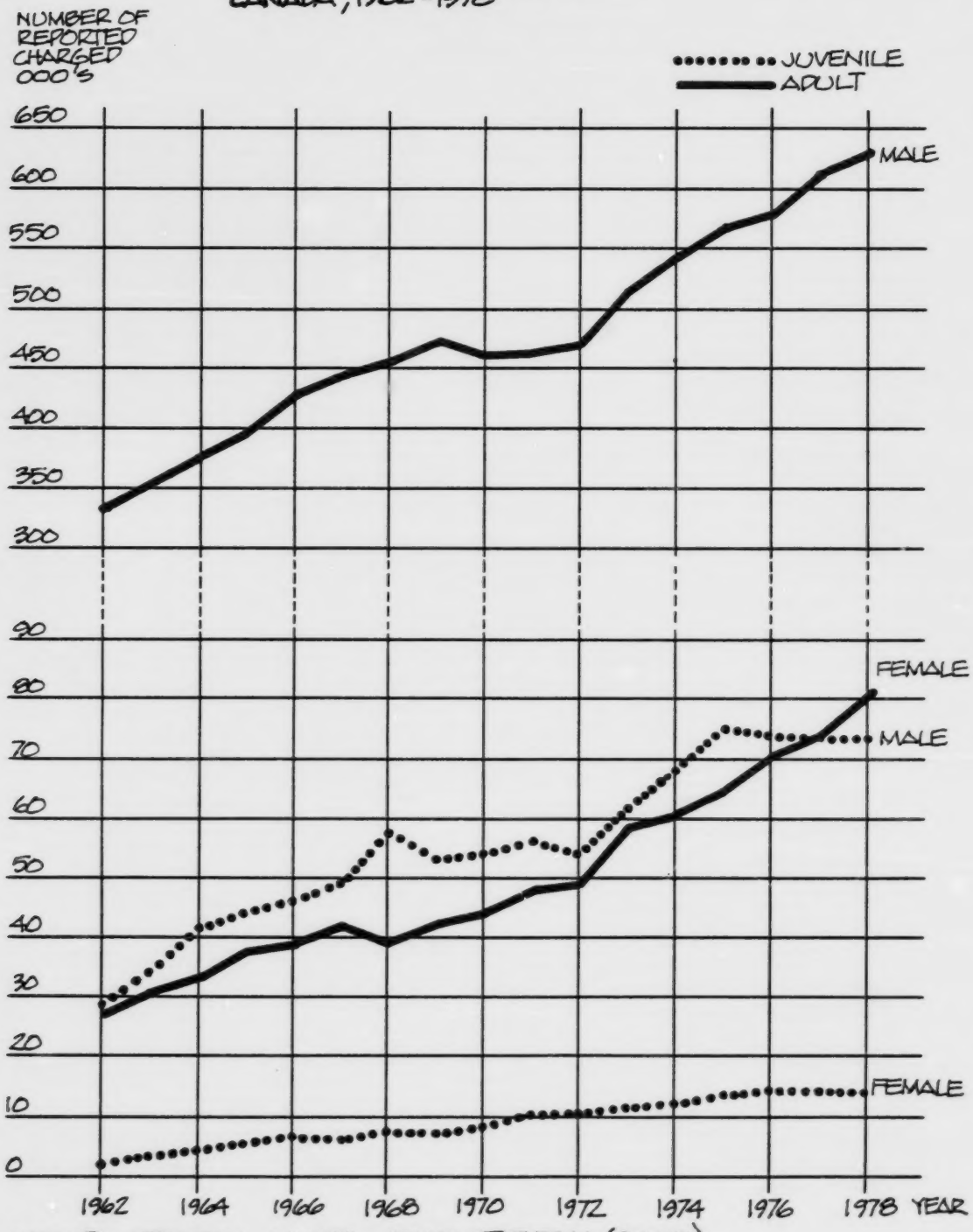
7 The most serious offence is that for which the law prescribes the heaviest punishment or, punishment being equal, that which the police judge to be the most serious, or the offence which appears first in the classification of offences.

8 Tables and figures preceded by "A" are in the Statistical Appendix.

FIGURE 2: NUMBER OF JUVENILES AND ADULT PERSONS REPORTED CHARGED BY SEX, CANADA, 1962 - 1978



SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CRIME STATISTICS (POLICE), CATALOGUE 85-205, 1962 TO 1978

Thus, some increase evidently occurred in the interval[9]. During the same time, the number of adults charged soared from 332,000 to 765,000 for men and 27,500 to 74,000 for women in 1981 (Tables A-2.1 and A-2.5). As shown in Table 2, the increase among female adult offenders largely exceeded that among male adult offenders and was related to the change in the number of boys charged. However, girls accounted for the largest increase, their numbers rising almost fivefold during the 20 years under review. This differential growth by sex may stem from many factors, among them the fact that delinquent behaviour on the part of girls and women may be more pronounced in a social context wherein the female's traditional role is called into question, in addition to which social reaction to such behaviour may change in response to the same influences. But does this general portrait apply for all the provinces?

TABLE 2: Crime trend index for 1962-77: number of juveniles and adults charged in 1977 per 100 population charged in 1962, by sex.

Province	Juveniles		Adults	
	Boys	Girls	Men	Women
CANADA	254	476	185	268
Newfoundland	208	474	167	271
Prince Edward Island	338	*	219	886
Nova Scotia	229	451	238	471
New Brunswick	272	666	188	572
Quebec	263	567	160	384
Ontario	216	342	204	311
Manitoba	342	581	147	184
Saskatchewan	267	322	266	341
Alberta	445	912	250	241
British Columbia	193	312	86	141
Yukon and Northwest Territories	657	652	134	128

* Cannot be calculated: nil in 1962.
Source: Tables A-1.1, A-1.3, A-2.1 and A-1.3 in the appendix.

The indexes calculated in Table 2 show that it does not. As far as juveniles are concerned, the growth in the number of boys charged is strongest in the Yukon and the Northwest Territories--although these particular increases may perhaps be traced to small demographic counts--and in Alberta, Manitoba and Prince Edward Island. As for girls charged, the provinces recording the most dramatic gains are Alberta, New Brunswick and Yukon/Northwest Territories. In Alberta, this increase probably results from the major growth of the province in recent years, as is further suggested by the figures for adult offenders. While all the provinces witnessed some increase in the number of juveniles charged, British Columbia, Ontario, Saskatchewan and Newfoundland registered the

9 It should be noted that starting in 1977, the Toronto police have reported each offence committed during an incident instead of simply the most serious offence, which obviously inflates the figures for both Ontario and Canada as a whole.

smallest gains. As for adults charged, British Columbia scored the smallest increase, followed by the Yukon/Northwest Territories and Manitoba. British Columbia even recorded a decline in the number of men charged.

Table A-3 in the appendix takes a different approach to highlight the provinces' respective differences and trends with regard to the proportion of females charged. In 1962, 10% of the juveniles charged and 8% of the adults charged were female. These proportions varied from one province to another and were highest on the whole in the provinces west of Quebec, with the exception of Saskatchewan (9%), and were lowest in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec (roughly 6%). In virtually all the provinces, the proportion of girls charged exceeded that of women. These proportions changed significantly over the study period, marking a regular increase in each province for both juveniles and adults. Nationally, in 1977, 19% of the juveniles charged and 12% of the adults charged were female. Gender-specific statistics for juveniles are unavailable for 1981-82, but of the adults, 13% were female. Here again, the proportions seem somewhat higher in the Western provinces than in the Maritimes and, until 1977, the increase was higher overall for juveniles than for adults.

The upward trend in the number of persons charged, particularly pronounced among juveniles in all provinces, reflects a rise in crime as apprehended by the police. It also reflects to some extent a rise in the number of youths apt to commit offences. Is the proportion of these potential youth offenders amenable to evaluation?

Although limited information makes it impossible to calculate age-specific crime rates, the evolution of criminality can be assessed on the basis of numerical growth within certain age groups. Figure A-1 in the appendix contains these data: starting in 1962, the 15-19 and 20-24 age groups grew in line with Canada's rise in fertility as a result of the post-war baby boom. In 1981, the country counted 1.6 times more juveniles aged 15-19 than in 1962 and 1.8 times more young adults aged 20-24. The ratios of these two age groups to the total population rose in every province, going from about 15% to 19% for Canada as a whole. The increase was stronger in the 20-24 age group than in the 15-19 age group, with the result that each group accounted for close to 9.5% of the Canadian population by the end of the period. These statistics support the observation that at least part of the rise in the number of persons charged resulted from an increase in the size of the corresponding age groups. Thus, if the 20-24 age group makes up about 50% of the adults charged and doubles in size over the period, a substantial increase in the number of adults charged can logically be anticipated. However, this single factor cannot fully account for the increase recorded over the 20 years under review, particularly since the provinces with the strongest gains are not always those with the strongest demographic growth. The situation is thus more complex and probably depends largely on the differential processing of offences from one province to another and on different social and economic situations.

What of the distribution of persons charged by selected classes of offences? In 1962, the majority of boys charged were accused of property crimes, with other criminal code violations and then offences against provincial statutes following far behind (Table 3 and definitions p.133). This distribution remained essentially the same until 1977. As for girls, the three above-mentioned offence classes were major areas of delinquency in 1962, whereas during the period 1972-77 property crime dominated, especially over other criminal code violations. One cannot help but observe here some equalization of the distribution of offences committed by girls and boys during the period. The stronger increase observed among girls would also seem to move them closer to the type of behaviour exhibited by boys. As for adults, in 1962 the distribution of men and women charged was more or less comparable by type of offence, the largest class being offences against provincial statutes. The profile shifted between 1962 and 1972, with the proportion of persons--especially women--charged with property offences rising to the detriment of offences against provincial statutes. After 1972, there was little change in this new distribution. Note, however, that the preceding trend had brought it closer to the distribution of juveniles charged by type of offence.

Figures A-2.1, A-2.2 and A-2.3 for 1977, 1980 and 1981 support a somewhat different evaluation of the portrait of juvenile and adult crime for five offence classes. Numerically, adult males charged dominate each class in much the same proportion from year to year, i.e. about 80%, with the exception of criminal code offences where they account for 60% of persons charged. As was seen earlier, juveniles were charged mostly with criminal code offences, the class in which they made up the largest proportion, about 30% if we consider that in 1977 most of the out of court cases involved juveniles. Adult females formed the second largest group of persons charged, with the exception of criminal code offences, in which class juvenile males were the most numerous. Based on the index of persons charged by the police, criminality thus appears more pronounced among males and adults. But one should bear in mind that a large proportion of those adults were young people ranging in age from 16 to 24, depending on the province. Juveniles, both boys and girls, accounted for about the same proportion of offences as adult females, except for criminal offences where they numbered three times more.

2.1.1.3 Police Metropolitan Areas

The foregoing data concern Canada and the provinces. It might be interesting at this point to turn to police metropolitan areas to see whether the same portrait emerges. Statistics have been available since 1977 according to the new breakdown. However, as was mentioned earlier, a change in the method of reporting juvenile statistics complicates comparison between 1977 and more recent years. The Toronto area is the one most affected by this change in reporting technique, which inflates the figures compared to the other areas (see note 9, page 9).

As could be expected, the number of persons charged in the police metropolitan areas accounts for a large share of the total charged in each province (Table A-7). This is particularly true of the Winnipeg, Calgary, Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver police metropolitan areas. Although validation is difficult given that the boundaries of the police metropolitan areas do not coincide with the census boundaries, this

Table 3: Sex distribution by type of offence of juveniles and adults charged, Canada, 1962, 1972, 1977, 1980 and 1981

Offence	1962				1972				1977				1980			1981		
	J		A		J		A		J		A		J	A		J	A	
	B	G	M	W	B	G	M	W	B	G	M	W	B & G	M	W	B & G	M	W
Against the person	2,9	3,3	4,9	2,9	3,1	2,6	6,6	4,6	3,0	3,0	5,9	4,7	4,8	5,7	4,5	4,0	5,5	4,5
Against property	67,5	35,1	16,1	14,1	69,2	47,5	20,2	36,1	67,5	51,9	21,0	39,1	60,8	22,5	40,6	61,3	23,0	41,4
Other Criminal Code	14,1	23,0	12,4	16,5	11,9	9,5	13,6	14,8	11,9	8,5	16,4	15,9	18,3	15,8	13,3	18,2	15,3	13,1
Federal statutes	2,0	8,3	6,3	7,2	2,7	5,6	8,3	8,0	4,8	6,3	12,4	10,6	3,6	9,4	8,5	3,2	9,0	7,9
Provincial statutes	9,2	26,9	49,4	47,9	11,1	33,5	43,7	27,3	11,5	29,5	40,5	24,7	11,3	43,3	28,8	11,8	43,6	28,2
Municipal bylaws	4,3	3,4	10,9	11,4	2,0	1,3	7,6	9,2	1,3	0,8	3,8	5,0	,2	3,3	4,3	1,5	3,6	4,9
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

J = juveniles, A = adults, B = boys, G = girls, M = men, W = women.

Source: Tables A-1.1, A-1.2, A-1.3, A-1.4, A-1.5, A-2.1, A-2.2, A-2.3, A-2.4 and A-2.5 in the appendix.

situation is known to stem from the size of the population in these specific areas. Overall, the observed proportions held from 1977 to 1981; however, the ratio of juveniles declined in Montreal and Vancouver and rose in Toronto. Calgary and Halifax recorded some decline among adults. Whereas one might think that the proportions of juveniles and adults charged would be the same for any one area, a number of differences are in fact observed, resulting most likely from the age-specific composition of each area and the types of offences committed most often. In Montreal and Vancouver, the proportion of adults charged regularly exceeds that of juveniles, whereas the opposite is generally true for Winnipeg and Calgary.

Are the ratios of girls and women charged in the police metropolitan areas comparable to those for Canada and the provinces? With the exception of juvenile statistics for 1977, the figures in Table A-8 suggest that more girls and women were charged within police metropolitan areas than elsewhere in Canada (Table A-3). The highest proportions of girls charged were in Winnipeg, Hamilton, Toronto and London in 1977. Among adults, for 1977, 1980 and 1981, the areas reporting the highest ratios of female adults charged were Ottawa, Vancouver, Montreal and Calgary. This situation can be tied to a great many factors, including the specific composition of the population in each of the areas and their respective economic and social development, as well as differential social reaction to female offenders.

Tables A-9.1, A-9.2 and A-9.3 give the distribution of juveniles and adults charged by selected major classes of offences for the Montreal, Toronto and Vancouver police metropolitan areas. In 1977, the Toronto area reported the highest number of young people charged with offences against the person. In 1980 and 1981, Montreal took the lead with 6.3% of the reported offences having been in this class. The percentage of male adults charged with offences against the person remained stable, with a high of about 2% in Vancouver. Toronto registered a fairly low ratio of property offences in 1981, with 42.7% of them committed by juveniles. The corresponding figures for Montreal and Vancouver ranged from 64% to 70%. The disparity in the statistics is illustrated by another interesting observation: in 1981, adults charged with violations of municipal bylaws accounted for more than 20% of all offences in Montreal. The corresponding ratio for Toronto and Vancouver was a low 3.3%. This disparity might be explained by policy differences.

To put the finishing stroke on the first trait of the youth crime portrait, we note that the number of juveniles and adults charged has clearly increased over the past 20 years, only partly as a result of an increase in the populations involved. This evolution concerns juveniles more than adults, girls and women more than boys and men. Lastly, the increase would seem to lie in property offences more than other types of delinquencies. This portrait is valid for Canada as a whole, as well as the provinces and the main metropolitan areas.

2.1.2 Self-Reported Delinquency

After the foregoing profile, which was constructed from statistics on law enforcement and the administration of justice, the portrait can now be completed by focusing attention on the behaviour itself, without regard for the punishment awarded.

Clearly, a fairly large number of offences of certain types escape the official statistics. For instance, statistics are more reliable for homicides than for shoplifting. It is therefore advisable to examine crime from another perspective. Two methods of analysis add to our understanding of the phenomenon, namely self-report questionnaires and victimization surveys. These tools, already in widespread use in the United States, are fairly new to Canada. Owing to the scarcity of victim data in this country, the accent here is on self-report surveys.

This data collection technique, which consists of asking the respondents to reveal if and how often they have committed selected offences, has been in regular use since the late 1950s, first in the United States and then by researchers the world over. Without heaping imaginary merits on the self-reporting technique, Nettler (1974) notes that given the unfeasibility of first-hand observation, this approach provides the best possible measure of actual delinquency. Unfortunately, Canada has only one major survey of a representative sample, a 1974 study conducted by the "Groupe de recherche sur l'inadaptation juvénile" among adolescents averaging 14 years of age. The adolescents surveyed were residents of Montreal Island; the sample comprised 3,070 students and 470 youths encountered at juvenile court. The students filled out a self-report questionnaire, whereas the charges of the court were interviewed. The information gathered in 1974 and 1976 deals with delinquency, factual data and psychosocial measures.

Other Canadian studies have made use of the self-reporting technique, but the samples are generally smaller (Hagan et al., 1979). Or else the questions are more specific, as in the case of the study by Linden and Currie (1977) based on a sample of 708 Calgary youths between the ages of 15 and 24 and dealing mainly with the use of illicit drugs. For reasons linked to the cost of sampling, the self-report questionnaire has been administered mainly to young people; the Canadian respondents were aged 12 to 18.

It is difficult to discuss delinquency without making some distinction between offences in the aggregate and certain specific offences. This is particularly true for minors, for their delinquency may include a series of statutory acts, denoting types of behaviour which are not formally sanctioned owing to the age of the perpetrators, e.g. underage drinking, truancy and running away from home. Thus, dealing with minors in terms of general delinquency makes for a highly diversified picture of involvement.

Indicatively, studies conducted in Montreal show 92.8% of these youths aged 12 to 18 admitting to at least one delinquent act during the past 12 months (Fréchette and LeBlanc, 1979). The offences involved were status or criminal offences, meaning that had the law been strictly enforced, 92.8% of adolescents aged 12 to 18 might have been referred to juvenile court. This is not exceptional, for similar findings have been observed in a number of Western countries: Junger-Tas (1976) puts the corresponding figure for Belgian youths aged 15-18 at 68% and Williams and Gold (1972) report 88% for a nationwide US sample of adolescents between the ages of 13 and 16. Interestingly, all self-report studies indicate the same distribution of delinquency wherein a majority of adolescents commit very few delinquent acts, while a very small minority commit a great many.

To illustrate somewhat the differences by type of offence surveyed, it should be pointed out that if delinquent acts are broken down into status offences (given the legal adult age of the subjects) and criminal offences (against penal provisions), the proportion of adolescents who have committed at least one status offence during the past 12 months stands at 88%. The data of Fréchette and LeBlanc (1979) reveal, moreover, that 82.5% of adolescents (students) committed at least one indictable offence, or criminal act, during the past 12 months.

Also of great interest is the fact that 82.9% of respondents aged 16-17 admit to a delinquent act; the ratio is 78% for respondents aged 18-19. This illustrates that young people might commit fewer delinquent acts as they grow older.

In light of this, we can go on to analyse self-report data in terms of such contextual data as age, sex and socio-economic status.

As was mentioned earlier, there is a gradual decline in delinquency starting at age 17-18, following upon an increase at earlier ages. Interestingly, this ascending-descending curve is observed among youths encountered both in the schools and in juvenile courts.

The gender-based differences are highly enlightening. While 27.5% of adolescents reported no criminal delinquency (as opposed to status offences), only 9.8% of boys reported no such activity. Also noteworthy is the differential involvement of girls surveyed in the school setting as opposed to those approached in an institution[10]. Thirty per cent of the first group of respondents said that they had committed no criminal act during the past 12 months, compared to 9.2% for the second group (Gagnon et al., 1980).

In another interesting development, a socioeconomic survey revealed that 20.2% of working class youths had committed no criminal offence, as compared to 15.2% for middle-class adolescents. Fréchette and LeBlanc (1979) further indicate that 11.6% of offenders having committed between 11 to 18 delinquent acts during the past 12 months were middle-class youths and 7.4% were from the working class.

Apart from age, there is no other basis for comparison of the sample of adolescents surveyed in the schools against the sample of court wards since the latter group comprises only boys and the socio-economic dimension lacks diversity.

Fréchette and LeBlanc (1979) developed very general scales based on the summation of responses regarding specific offences. They also compiled the information of offence classes and thus formed specific secondary scales for petty theft, assault, drugs, vandalism and grand theft. According to these researchers, the ratios of youths who did not commit such acts are 62.5% for petty theft, 69% for assault, 72% for drug-related offences, 85% for vandalism and 95.6% for major theft. Here again, the gender-specific differences are very enlightening for all

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[10] The delinquency of these juveniles was surveyed by means of a 1979 study among 130 girls institutionalized in Montreal (Gagnon, Biron and Bertrand, 1980).

classes of offences, with the exception of drugs and major theft. The commission rate for major theft is too low (4.4%) to have much significance. As for the other secondary scales, the gender-based differential ratios of juveniles who responded that they had never committed such acts are as follows: petty theft, boys 53.5% and girls 73.4%; assault, boys 57.1% and girls 83.8%; and vandalism, boys 77.9% and girls 93.5%.

Although two different samples are involved, it is still interesting to note that institutionalized girls revealed more delinquency than girls in an open setting, the disparity being even more obvious when the data are presented by specific secondary scales, i.e. by class of offence.

Taking drug-related offences for instance, 70.6% of schoolgirls responded that they had not used drugs in the past 12 months, as opposed to only 30.6% of girls in a closed setting. Similar differences are observed for all the secondary scales, with the exception of major theft, which sub-class comprises few institutionalized female juvenile offenders (36%) (Gagnon, Biron and Bertrand, 1980).

From the socio-economic perspective, the ratios are much the same for all the secondary scales, with the exception of drug use, where middle-class youths are in the majority. By way of example, 63.1% of middle-class young people responded that they had never used drugs during the past 12 months, compared to 77.7% of working-class youths.

The age-specific differences are indicative of the passage from adolescence to adulthood. For one, not many 18 year olds are found in the category of assault, which encompasses gang fights and acts of provocation: 10.2% confessed to such acts, as compared to 52.1% of adolescents aged 12-13. The picture is the same for vandalism: 20.7% of adolescents aged 12-13 committed acts of vandalism, compared to 5.1% of youths 18 years old. The ratios are reversed for drug use, with 9.6% of 12-13 year olds having used them, as against 38.4% of 18 year olds.

To complete this portion of the youth crime portrait, it is fitting to present the additional data gathered from juvenile court wards, whose involvement in delinquency exhibits a trend somewhat different from that of school-based adolescents. The majority of wards turn up in the theft category (shoplifting, petty theft, and break and enter). Indeed 95.1% of the sample of 408 subjects who had committed offences (62 subjects had committed none) fell in this "economic" category. Fréchette and LeBlanc (1979) also grouped the other categories in order to present a comprehensive picture, which indicates the involvement of 36.8% of young people encountered in the court setting and admitting to "interpersonal" offences. In last place are drug-related offences, namely possession for the purpose of trafficking, in which category 8.4% of the offenders are youths.

These data are limited to indicative uses, given the difficulty of making exact comparisons from different samples. Still, owing to the data gathering technique used, they put the final touches on our statistical portrait, which is itself blemished by a number of biases.

Based on official statistics and self-report data, we observe a certain relationship between the most common types of offences. Whichever method is used, property offences account for a large number of youth offenders. On the other hand, drug offences are underrepresented in the statistics in light of the information reported by the youths themselves.

Girl/boy ratios hover around 1 to 5 in police statistics, while self-report data indicate a ratio of 1 to 3. This higher figure lends credibility to the hypothesis that girls are treated more tolerantly than boys by the police but not necessarily by the other agents of the criminal justice system.

While the police represent the doorway to the penal system, our profile now continues onto the second stage, namely the courts and the statistics which they report.

2.1.3 Court Statistics

2.1.3.1 Preliminary Remarks

The court statistics published by Statistics Canada concern persons charged and persons convicted. (Police statistics bear solely on persons charged; charging does not necessarily result in conviction.) Note, however, that the age-specific data used here are confined to persons convicted, meaning that the data set is considerably smaller than the one analysed earlier. It is a known fact that not all persons charged (police statistics) are brought to court, and they are obviously not all convicted.

Involved here are two separate statistical series, one pertaining to adult offenders (Catalogue 85-201) and the other pertaining to juvenile offenders (Catalogue 85-202). The data for the latter series are gathered from Canada's juvenile and family courts and concern young people appearing in court in the wake of charges laid under the Juvenile Delinquent Act or the corresponding provincial legislation. The data on adult offenders are gathered from sessions, county and district court records. This particular series stops at 1972 and no age-specific data are available for adults after that date. The base unit for these statistics is the convicted individual, who can be convicted of only one offence. A single delinquency per person is tabulated, in line with the rule of the most serious offence[11]. Juvenile statistics are still being published, although there have been major changes in the method of reporting, with the result that the possibilities of time analysis are limited. From 1962 to 1968, the information was reported for all juveniles found delinquent, regardless of the number of times they were found delinquent in the course of the year. This practice obviously gave rise to duplicated counts and was discontinued in 1970 with the publication of unduplicated counts.

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[11] Similar to the rule defined in police statistics, i.e. the offence for which the heaviest punishment was awarded.

During the 1962-67 period, age-specific data for juvenile delinquents stopped at 15 years; the figures for 16 and 17 year olds were included in the adult data depending on the age limit set by the individual provinces. It might be recalled here that British Columbia and Alberta have since changed the upper age limit between the juvenile and adult categories (Table 1), in 1973 and 1978 respectively. Furthermore, the base unit in the different publications changed during the study period. The 1962 to 1973 age-specific data used here were based on juveniles found delinquent, with the exception of a few provinces from 1970 to 1973. Those provinces have their own crime reporting program, one example being Manitoba, which reports the number of youths referred to juvenile court.

In 1974 a major change in the method of reporting juvenile delinquent statistics limited the amount of information available but made it uniform for all the provinces. At present, two types of age-based data are published, one based on the number of offences, the other pertaining to the number of young people who made at least one juvenile court appearance during the year and based on the most serious offence. The statistics also give the number of juveniles found delinquent.

To offset, in part, the many drawbacks ensuing from these different changes, the data are broken down here into two distinct periods, 1962-67 and 1974-81. Although strict comparison of these data sets is unfeasible, this breakdown at least makes it possible to portray the situation early in the study period, while developing a fuller picture of more recent developments.

Lastly, it should be noted that the court statistics for juveniles as well as adults lend themselves better than do police statistics to analysis of the cohort of young people aged 15-24. The age breakdown used in the court statistics is more specific and, despite a number of limitations, provides for keener evaluation of the special situation of youths involved in the judicial process.

2.1.3.2 Juveniles

Nationally, 5,034 boys and 761 girls aged 15 were found delinquent in 1962 (Table A-10). By 1967, the figures had risen 28% and 34% respectively, a comparable increase for the two sexes. Obviously, the most densely populated provinces reported the most delinquents: Ontario, Quebec and British Columbia alone accounted for roughly 75% in both 1962 and 1967. But the increase appears to be greater in the Western provinces, as well as in Quebec as far as girls are concerned. For the two years in Canada as a whole, juveniles 15 years of age accounted for about 40% of delinquents aged 15 and under, though the figures vary by sex and province. Girls aged 15 made up a somewhat larger proportion of total girls than boys. Overall, the strongest proportions were found in Quebec and the provinces west of Ontario. In all likelihood, these data reflect largely the specific manner in which the individual provinces handle delinquency.

While the nature of the offences for which young people are found delinquent is not the same for boys and girls, it varied little between 1962 and 1967 (Table A-11). Two classes of offences dominate among

juvenile males, namely non-violent property crimes and violent property crimes. Next come other criminal code violations and offences against provincial statutes, in similar proportions. Among juvenile females, violent crime against property was negligible; the other classes of offences above, together with federal offences, accounted for close to 80% of the delinquencies giving rise to conviction. It would thus appear that the offences committed by girls are less serious than those committed by boys.

The corresponding statistics[12] for the more recent period under review show crimes against property as still the most representative of juvenile delinquency in Canada (Tables A-12.1, A-12.2 and A-12.3). The magnitude of these offences decreases, however, with age, making way for offences against provincial statutes. Little change is observed between 1974 and 1980-81. Nationally, the proportion of delinquent acts committed by 15 year olds seems higher than that for 16-17 year olds, but these figures are largely a result of the different provincal age limits for juveniles and adults. In the provinces where young people aged 15, 16 and 17 are regarded as juveniles (Quebec and Manitoba especially), some increase in the number of offences is observed with age. This also applies for the juveniles involved in the judicial process, as indicated by the statistics presented in Table A-13.

From 1974 to 1981, the number of young people appearing in court[13] varied rather significantly from one province to another (Table A-13). Newfoundland and Manitoba recorded dramatic increases of close to 500%; figures for Ontario, Saskatchewan and Alberta remained much the same, whereas Quebec registered a decline. As Hackler concludes in a critique of court statistics on juvenile delinquents in the Prairie provinces, these differences probably reflect differences in the administrative procedures of the respective provinces:

> "It is clear, however, that referring to the raw data from the three prairie provinces without some knowledge of the operation of procedures in those areas would lead to inappropriate conclusions. It is probably safest to assume that patterns of juvenile delinquency are somewhat similar in the prairie provinces but the administrative procedures are somewhat different." (Hackler, 1980: 480-481)

This conclusion also applies to the court disposition of young people referred to juvenile court. For Canada as a whole, some 80% of referees were found delinquent. However, this figure masks certain differences between the provinces, Manitoba having recorded the smallest proportion and the Maritimes and Alberta the highest. Where juveniles aged 15-17 were brought to court, no clear relationship between the court disposition and the age of the delinquents is observed.

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12 But presented differently, based in this case on offences and not on persons. These particular statistics make no distinction between the sexes or between property crimes with and without violence.

13 Unduplicated count, i.e. counted only once for those who made more than one court appearance during the year.

2.1.3.3 Young Adults

Nationally, 10,692 males and 645 females aged 16-19 were convicted by a court in 1962, making for 32% and 22% of all males and females convicted (Table A-14). The corresponding figures for 20-24 year olds were 7,929 for males and 575 for females. The latter age group thus made up a smaller proportion of all persons convicted, standing at 24% for males and 19% for females. Even taking account of the differential weights of these two age groups in the total population, the figures suggest that more young people in the 16-19 age group were convicted than in the elder group, especially among males. Obviously, most of those persons were from Ontario and Quebec, followed by British Columbia and Alberta. In 1962, females made up 6% of convicted persons aged 16 to 19. The proportion was 7% for the 20-24 age group, slightly lower than the ratios reported through police statistics. Males were slightly dominant in the 16-19 age group in the Eastern provinces, a result which could be linked to their demographic weight (Figure A-1).

It is no easy task to trace the evolution of these figures for Canada on the whole because data are not always available for all the provinces. Still, the indexes built in Table 4 for selected provinces show an increase in the number of persons convicted during the 1962-72 period, the increase is stronger for females than for males.

TABLE 4: Crime trend index for persons convicted of indictable offences by age group and sex in 1972 per 100 population convicted in 1962, selected provinces[1]

Province	16-19[2]		20-24	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Newfoundland	74	-	103	-
Nova Scotia	153	-	167	-
New Brunswick	149	-	122	-
Ontario	163	385	156	331
Manitoba	151	-	199	-
Saskatchewan	198	-	138	-
British Columbia	164	330	217	-

1 Includes only those provinces and categories for which the figures used for this report are higher than 100 (in 1962). No data have been available for Quebec and Alberta since 1968 and 1969 respectively.

2 From 1962 to 1967, this age group comprised young people aged 16, 17 or 18 found delinquent in the provinces where the age limit was over 16. However, Statistics Canada made the necessary adjustments for purposes of comparability.

Source: Table A-14 in the appendix.

In 1972, young women aged 16-19 accounted for 13% of the persons convicted in this age group and 14% of those convicted in the 20-24 age group. This general increase occurred in all the provinces, with the exception of Newfoundland, but gains were particularly notable in Saskatchewan for 16-19 year olds and in Manitoba and British Columbia for 20-24 year olds. That same year, young people represented a higher proportion of all persons convicted than in 1962, among males and females alike. Bear in mind, however, that they also made up a larger share of Canada's overall population.

According to the 1961 Census, 70% of the population were urban dwellers. That percentage varied according to age, standing at 73% of the 20-24 age group and 66% of the 15-19 age group. Taken as indicators, these figures show a somewhat higher concentration of convicted persons in urban areas than in rural areas. In both 1962 and 1969[14], close to 80% of the males and 90% of the females resided in urban areas (Table A-15). As far as females are concerned, this supports selected police metropolitan statistics, which also suggested a higher proportion of females charged in urban areas.

Of the males aged 16 to 19 convicted in 1962, a large number were labourers, students, or unemployed, with these three categories alone accounting for 60% of all persons convicted (Table A-16). The same trend seems to hold for 1969, but precise comparison is impossible given the large number of persons of unstated occupation. Looking at the table, the 20-24 age group comprised fewer students, while other occupational classes were dominant, first labourers, followed by construction and manufacture workers and the unemployed. As for females, the student category was a significant one among the young ages, as were the service, housewife and clerical categories. Obviously, this table translates the structure and sex distribution of the labour market. Furthermore, whereas young people made up about the same proportions of persons charged in rural and urban areas, major differences emerge by occupation and are obviously linked to the specific position which youths occupy in the labour market or, in the case of unemployment, the position which they do not occupy.

As with 15 year olds, these young males were convicted primarily of non-violent property crimes and then of violent property crimes (Table A-17). With age, however, crimes against the person claimed increasing importance. This portrait applies for 1962 and 1972, but non-violent property crimes were proportionally higher in 1972. Lastly males between the ages of 16 and 19 made up the largest proportion of persons convicted of violent crimes against property. Females of all ages were convicted essentially for non-violent property offences (close to 3 out of 4).

Naturally, the sentences pronounced against convicted individuals vary with the seriousness of the criminal act. The rise in the share of non-violent property crimes between 1962 and 1972 probably explains the larger proportion of lighter sentences in 1972. The most significant differences emerge by age, with young people aged 16 to 19 receiving lighter sentences than their elders. This most likely stems from their

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[14] Most recent year available.

respective prior criminal records and the seriousness of the offence. The sentences pronounced against females were lighter than those imposed on males (Table A-18).

Although it is not possible to analyse all sentence-related statistics, we can draw a portrait based on the heaviest sentences, i.e. incarceration.

2.1.4 Training Schools and Correctional Institutions

2.1.4.1 Preliminary Remarks

Training school and correctional institution statistics bear solely on persons condemned to a term of imprisonment or, in the case of juveniles, to a stay in a training school.

The statistics for juveniles are reported by the training schools administered or supervised by the provinces (Catalogue 85-208). A uniform reporting program was introduced in 1963 and amended in January 1964 to include all children admitted or readmitted to a training school rather than only those children admitted subsequent to a judgment of delinquency. For, in fact, training schools play a dual role of protection and correction. Unfortunately, the age-specific data used here make no distinction between these two reasons for placement.

A few provinces have no such institutions and route children found delinquent to training schools in neighbouring provinces. Prince Edward Island sends them to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; girls from Saskatchewan and all juveniles from the Northwest Territories stay in training schools in Alberta and Manitoba. The data are published by unduplicated count for juveniles admitted more than once during the same year.

As for adult offenders sentenced to imprisonment, prison directors and the penitentiary commission submit annual reports on the numbers and vital statistics of inmates admitted or released. Penitentiaries come under federal jurisdiction and house individuals condemned to terms of more than two years. Prisons are under provincial jurisdiction and house adult offenders sentenced to terms of less than two years. Exceptionally, special arrangements are entered into for the housing of small groups of inmates.

There are two types of data which give a picture of institutionalized young adults: (a) inventory data, which provide a profile of the penal population at any given time, and (b) flow data, which indicate the admissions and releases of the penal population. Until 1975, only the latter data were available for penitentiaries. Statistical inventories were introduced in 1976, at the same time as data on the provincial institutions of certain provinces. In 1979, Catalogue 85-207, Correctional Institutions Statistics, was replaced by a new index of Canada's correctional services, produced by the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics. This new index presents the data in a different manner.

2.1.4.2 Juveniles

Taking only those admissions not involving transfer or parental request for placement, the number of admissions to Canadian training schools fell from 1,713 in 1964[15] to 1,437 in 1972 for boys and rose from 585 to 802 for girls (Table A-19). This shows the admissions of girls increasing by nearly 37% during this period, while the admission of boys dropped 16%. This difference is explained in part by the many placements of girls for reasons of protection. In 1964, young people aged 15 and over accounted for 65% of all admissions. By 1972, the proportions had increased for both boys and girls.

Excluding British Columbia, which reported no relevant statistics in 1972, Ontario and Quebec alone accounted for close to 80% of all admissions. From 1964 to 1972, the figures for Ontario rose 32% for boys and 85% for girls. In Quebec, the number of admissions of boys remained unchanged, as opposed to a spectacular increase of 135% for girls.

Although there is no age-specific breakdown by reason for placement, it is interesting to take a closer look at the measure anteceding a youth's placement (Table 5). These data are available for 1972 and concern Quebec and Ontario.

TABLE 5: Ratios of admissions subsequent to court appearance, by age and sex, Quebec and Ontario, 1972

Province	15 years		16 years		17 years		18 years & over	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Quebec	94.4	78.7	96.8	85.6	96.8	91.8	98.3	95.7
Ontario	88.9	41.4	91.2	51.1	-	-	-	-

Source: Statistics Canada, Training Schools, Catalogue 85-208, 1972.

They give some idea of the potential differences by province and sex. In both Quebec and Ontario, but especially in the latter, girls are placed less often than boys in training schools subsequent to appearance in court. The disparity lessens with age, but there is an increase in the proportion of boys admitted in the wake of court appearance.

As some studies have revealed for juvenile offenders on the whole, girls are placed in training schools for different reasons than boys (Biron and Gagnon, 1979), with their placement more often for purposes of protection rather than correction. The evolution in the number of female admissions between 1964 and 1972 could stem from this difference and reflect changes in social reaction to "marginal" girls.

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[15] Admissions for British Columbia were excluded from the 1964 figures so they could be comparable to the 1972 figures since the province submitted no report in 1972.

2.1.4.3 Young Adults

Young people aged 15-24 have represented a large proportion of persons admitted to federal penitentiaries in recent years, i.e. close to 45% between 1964-65 and 1980-81 (Table A-20). This proportion appears higher among those aged 20-24, although the figures for the younger group (15-19 year olds) are not amenable to direct comparison owing to the different provincial age limits. This trend seems to move upward with time. Lastly, the ratio of young males generally exceeds that of young females, in cases where the two could be calculated.

The most recent data broken down by regions indicate that proportionally more young adults are admitted to federal penitentiaries in the Atlantic provinces, particularly among 15-19 year olds. In contrast, the Pacific region and Ontario record the lowest proportions (Table A-21). Thus, the ratio of 15-24 year olds to total persons admitted to penitentiaries ranges from about 30% in the Pacific region to nearly 60% in the Atlantic provinces. Nationally, these figures bear on some 500 young people aged 15-19 and close to 1,600 aged 20-24 in 1980-81[16].

Available inventory data for the past two years indicate that in 1977 some 30% of the 9,252 males admitted to penitentiaries across Canada were under 25 years old (Figure 3). A slightly lower proportion of 25% was recorded for females, whereas the total number of females admitted was much smaller (200). The data for 1980 and 1981 make no gender distinction and youths under age 25 made up 26% and 32%, respectively, of total inmates, with the ratio of 20-24 year olds largely exceeding that of 15-19 year olds (Table A-22).

Who are these young people institutionalized for terms of more than two years? What types of offences did they commit? Although there is not an abundance of material to document answers to these questions, especially for recent years, some such material is available. In 1964-65 and 1972, young people between the ages of 15 and 25 were convicted primarily of offences against property, with the 15-19 age group in the lead (Table A-23.1). This is also the offence class in which they represented the largest age group, accounting alone for nearly 50% of all admissions under this heading. However, the concentration was less pronounced among 20-24 year olds, who accounted for a substantial share of admissions for violations of federal statutes (including the Drug Act) in 1972, as well as offences against the person and other criminal code offences. The 1977 figures (Table A-23.2) are not readily comparable to those for previous years given the different age breakdown. On the whole, however, they appear to confirm the trends brought to light for the preceding years.

In 1964-65 and 1972, about 20% of young people aged 15-19 admitted to a federal facility were classed as alcoholics or problem drinkers (Table A-24), as compared to 30% of those aged 20-24. Yet, as could be expected in light of their young age, youths made up the largest proportion of non-problem drinkers in both 1964-65 and 1972. From a

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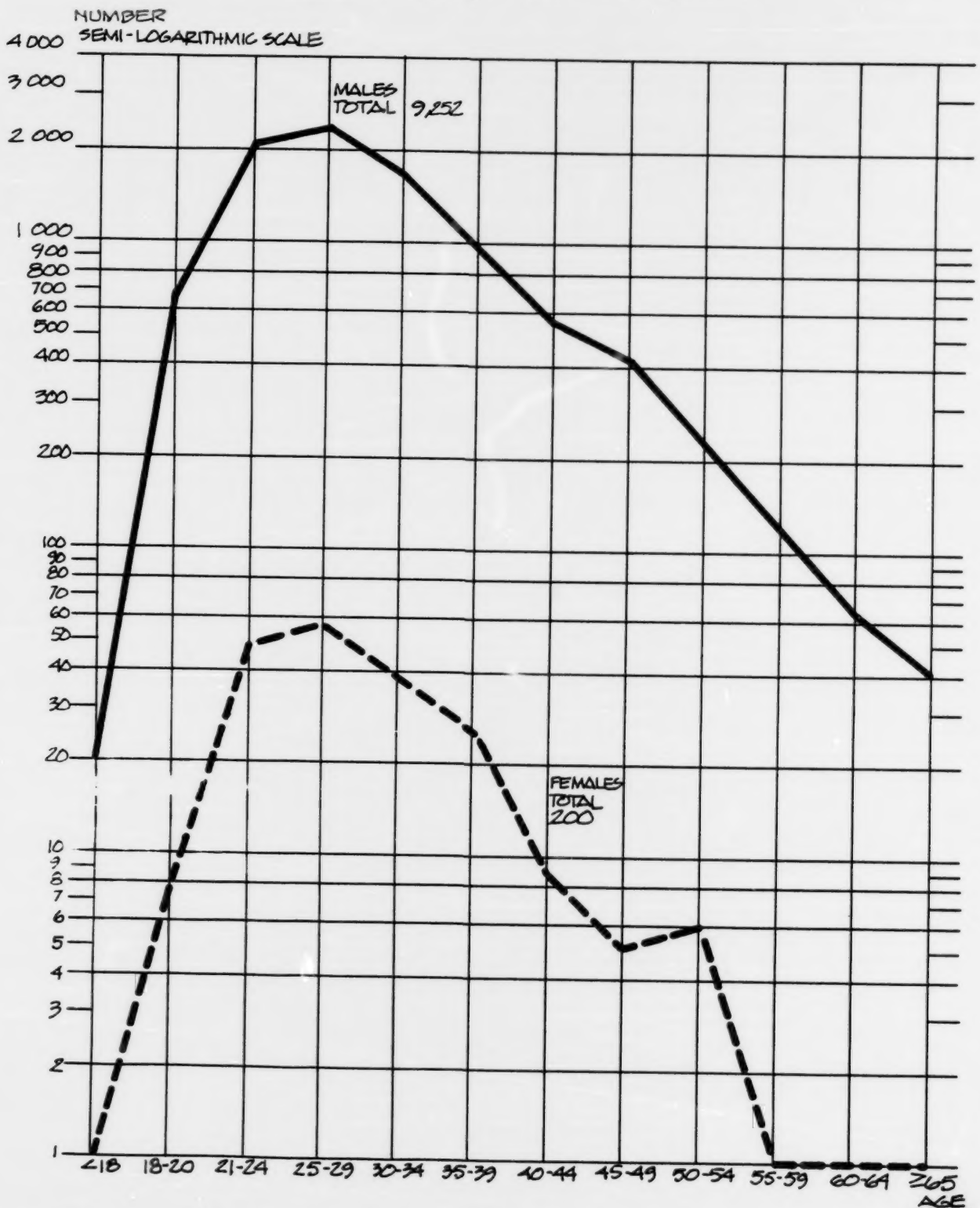
16 These are not exact figures in that duplicated counts are possible.

FIGURE 3: DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN FEDERAL PENITENTIARIES BY AGE, JUNE 1ST 1977, MALE AND FEMALE



SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION STATISTICS, CATALOGUE 85-207, 1977, P.41

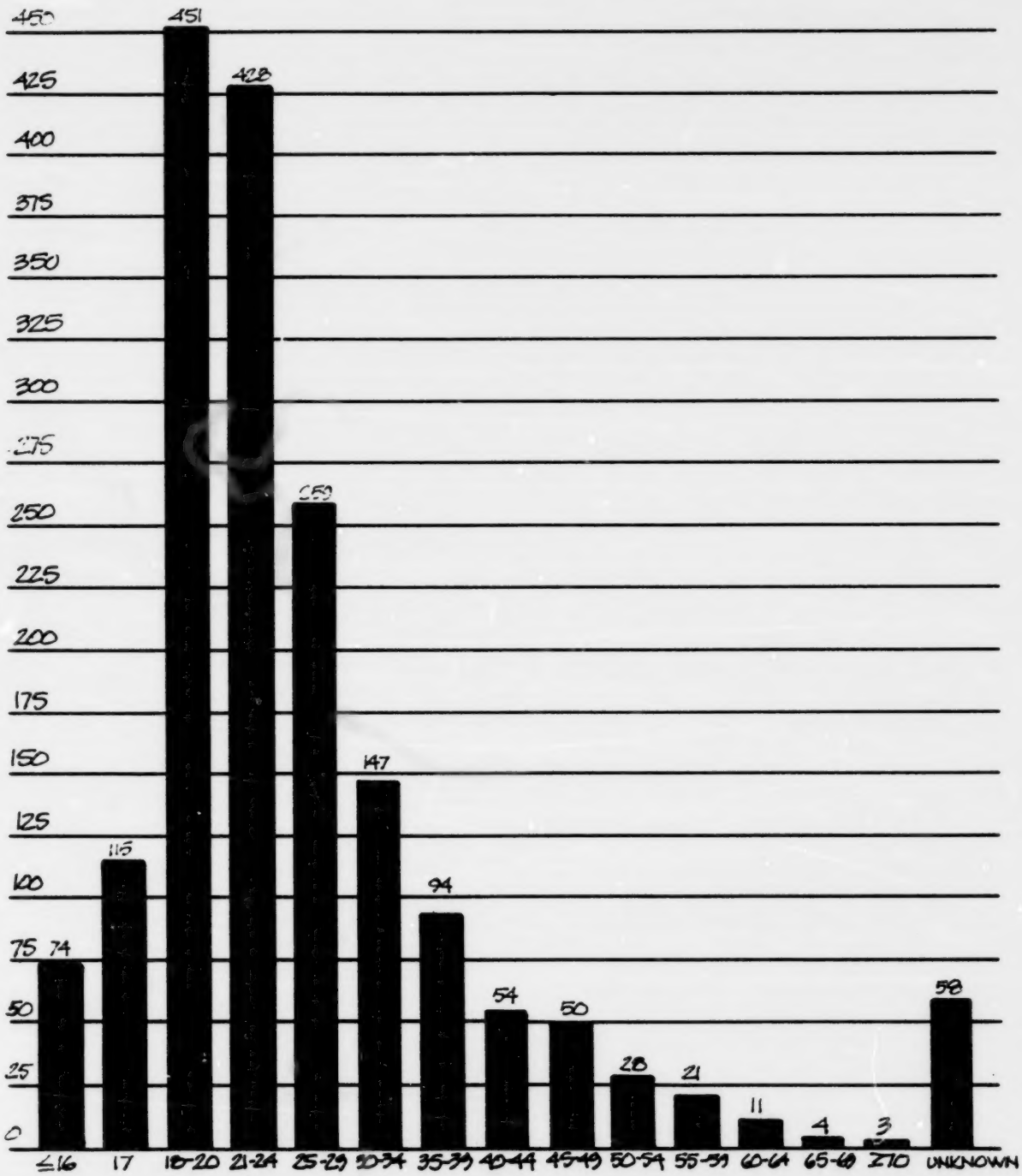
negligible phenomenon in 1964-65, it expanded to 43% among the 15-19 age group and 37% among the 20-24 age group (excluding the "not stated"). Youths between the ages of 15 and 20 represented a large portion of drug users of all ages, whereas young adults aged 20-24, although forming a large group of users, were heavily represented in the addict category. This spectacular evolution is obviously attributable to changes in the Canadian drug market and probably to the new popularity of this form of escape, particularly since the late 1960s.

Most youths admitted to federal penitentiaries in 1964-65 had completed 5 to 8 years of schooling (70% of the 15-19 year olds and 60% of the 20-24 year olds), with more of the oldest inmates having a higher level of schooling because of the age factor (Table A-25.1). As a result of the general rise in the level of schooling in Canada, the number of grades attained increased in 1972 for both age groups. This trend seems even more pronounced in 1977 (Table A-25.2), while the grade 9-10 category comprises the most youths both numerically and proportionally relative to all ages, since it is young people who are most affected by this gain in the level of education. However, the large number of "not stated" in 1972 and 1977 complicates any further interpretation of these statistics. Lastly, it is noteworthy that a negligible proportion of persons admitted to federal penitentiaries went beyond high school, even in 1977. On the other hand, the 1971 Census indicates that only 23% of the Canadian population aged 15 and over had not completed grade 11. It seems obvious, then, that the federal penitentiaries are populated by individuals from Canada's least educated classes.

Data are available on the previous institutional history of males admitted to federal penitentiaries in 1964-65 (Table A-26): 12.8% of young males aged 15-19 and 31% of those aged 20-24 incarcerated in 1964-65 had already been admitted to a penitentiary. For 51% of the first group and 24% of the second, it was the first conviction, the others having already been previously sentenced to a provincial prison or a reformatory. These figures suggest high rates of recidivism, since many of the same persons turned up in prisons and penitentiaries.

The foregoing data concern penitentiary inmates, i.e. individuals sentenced to the heaviest punishments and coming under federal jurisdiction. Since 1977, information has been available for prisons, administered by the provinces. Prison institutions claim a much larger population since more individuals are condemned to lighter sentences. The statistics for selected provinces indicate that in 1977 young people under the age of 25 accounted for 50% of the persons admitted to provincial institutions, most of them distributed fairly evenly among the 18-20 and 21-24 age groups (Table A-27). Compared to the penitentiary statistics, younger people seem more numerous in these institutions. Likewise, Figure 4 shows that as of June 1, 1977, 60% of the persons admitted to adult correctional facilities in the Maritimes and Manitoba were under 25. Most of the admissions involved males, as the number of females barely exceeded 100 in Manitoba, or 6% of total persons admitted to Manitoban prisons in 1977.

FIGURE 4: NUMBER OF PERSONS INCARCERATED IN ADULT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS, BY AGE OF ADMISSION, IN THE MARITIME PROVINCES AND MANITOBA AS OF JUNE 1, 1977



SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION STATISTICS, CATALOGUE 85-207, 1977, P.6.

The figures for 1979 and 1980 confirm that young people under 25 make up a large portion of the persons admitted to provincial institutions, which in 1980 recorded a total of 82,510 new admissions (Tables A-28.1 to A-28.4). This figure, a summation of all the 1980 data, obviously includes duplicated counts owing to minor sentences, but it clearly encompasses more young people than were admitted to federal facilities. It should also be noted that the sentences served in provincial institutions may be very short and thereby further the possibility of readmission within a year. Accounting for 45% to 60% of new admissions in 1979 and 1980, Quebec and British Columbia recorded the smallest proportions of youths. Data on persons put on probation are available for only a few provinces. They indicate that proportionally more young people are put on probation (Tables A-29.1 and A-29.2). This is probably linked to lighter sentences and thus more rapid turnover. The proportion of youths under 25 put on probation in 1979 and 1980 was highest in Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island and lowest in Quebec, British Columbia, Newfoundland and the Yukon. For those two years, the ratio of probations to new admissions was 4 to 1 in Quebec and practically 1 to 1 in Nova Scotia; British Columbia recorded more youths under 25 put on probation than newly incarcerated.

In sum, young people are strongly represented in both federal penitentiaries and provincial correctional institutions, but mostly in the latter where they make up close to 60% of the inmate population. Unfortunately, no gender-specific data are available to determine the respective profiles of males and females in provincial facilities.

2.2 Crime among Native Youth

We felt it important to turn special attention to native youth in view of the specific character of this group. This section thus deals with the native population in an attempt to ascertain whether the profile of young natives aged 15 to 25 is comparable to the general portrait derived for Canada and the provinces. While it seems established that natives have more frequent contact with the law than does the general population, our objective here is to better understand the circumstances surrounding this phenomenon.

As could be expected, there is not an abundant store of data with which to work. Used here are four sources of information: some preliminary observations from a study on native juvenile delinquency (Laprairie-Pitcher), Finkler's study on the Inuit and the administration of justice at Frobisher Bay, some correctional institution statistics on the distribution of native inmates by age and offence class, and a study focusing on the specific matter of admissions of native persons to Saskatchewan prisons.

2.2.1 Native Juvenile Delinquency

The study by Laprairie-Pitcher was conducted in an unidentified community of the Canadian North over an 18-month period spanning 1979 and 1980. It deals with types of offences and the characteristics of the young people who were found responsible for them. Delinquents of all ages are treated as a whole since available data do not allow for a gender breakdown. Two groups were singled out for this study, namely native persons, which encompasses status and non-status Indians and Metis, and non-natives. The following overall conclusions were reached:

1. the cases of native offenders are largely overrepresented in the juvenile judicial system;

2. the first contact of native juvenile offenders with the judicial system generally occurs earlier than among non-natives;

3. native offenders are largely disadvantaged compared to non-natives as regards living conditions and certain resources instituted for their benefit.

More specifically, the court statistics analysed for our purposes show that 39% of the cases in the sample involved natives, who nevertheless accounted for only 10% of the local population. The same statistics feature twice as many native girls as non-native girls. As for offences, although the actual numbers are not high, more natives than non-natives were found delinquent for petty theft or alcohol-related offences (status offences, Table A-30).

As for the personal characteristics of the young people found delinquent, the author observes that fewer native youths were students and that they were more often unemployed than non-native youths. Only 41% of the native youths lived with both parents, as compared to 71% of non-native young people. This could stem from a difference in family concept on the part of the two groups. There seems to be no difference in the probation officers' recommendations as to the disposition of youths found delinquent in the two groups (Table A-31) or in the manner in which the judge acknowledged and applied those recommendations.

Although these data in respect of one community cannot be generalised for all native youths, their analysis does highlight traits by which to grasp the phenomenon of native youth crime. Laprairie-Pitcher concludes with the suggestion that the adverse economic, social and political conditions under which native peoples more often live could be a critical factor in understanding what seems to be a specific criminal behaviour.

2.2.2 Crime among the Frobisher Bay Inuit

Finkler states that his Frobisher Bay study "evolved out of concern for the impact of formalized means of social control, as embodied in a code and applied by the agents of sanction, such as the police and the judiciary, on an indigenous group in a rapidly changing society" (Finkler, 1980, p. 9). His study deals with the Inuit but could, he states, apply to any other group living under similar conditions.

The data examined here are taken from Finkler's study; they concern adults and are derived from police and court statistics for 1972. In that year, 487 persons at Frobisher Bay were charged with various offences. Of that number, 295 were Inuit males and 120 were Inuit females, for a total 85% of all charges. The remainder were non-Inuit males since no charge was laid against a non-Inuit female (Table A-32). Indicatively, in 1973, Inuit aged 18 and over made up 58.2% of the total population of Frobisher Bay (Finkler, 1980: 84). This figure clearly illustrates the overrepresentation of Inuit individuals among persons charged in 1972.

Young people under age 25 accounted for 58% of the total. Non-Inuit made up the smaller proportion of the total (35%); Inuit females made up the largest proportion (88%), while 51% of the Inuit males charged were under 25. Alcohol-related delinquent acts dominated as the major offence class among Inuit females. While this type of offence also accounted for a large number of charges against Inuit males, it was not cited as frequently than among non-Inuit males. These observations bring to light a particular profile of the Inuit population and of the age-sex distribution of offenders at Frobisher Bay.

In 1972, convicted youths under the age of 25 represented 54% of the total, or about the same proportion as for persons charged (Table A-33). This percentage stood at 35% for non-Inuit males, 79% for Inuit females and 53% for Inuit males, these figures are similar to those observed earlier. In all, 79% of all persons convicted in 1972 were Inuit. The overall ratio of Inuit convicted was 186 to 1,000 population, as against 78 per 1,000 for non-Inuit (Finkler, 1980: 129).

Table A-33 shows the category of non-Inuit males as comprising the highest number of persons convicted of an offence (76%). Of the persons aged under 25 convicted of an offence, 73% were non-Inuit males, 52% Inuit females and 47% Inuit males. As with persons charged, the 20-24 age group comprised the largest number of persons convicted. One exceptional trait of this portrait is the fact that most Inuit girls convicted were aged 16 or 17. The same statistics distributed by type of offence show the weight of alcohol in the Inuit crime profile, whether as the main offence or an accessory offence. Non-Inuit males turned up most often in the motor vehicle or drug offence class (table A-34 and A-35). Notwithstanding the small figures involved, a clear differential crime portrait emerges for Inuit and non-Inuit.

As Finkler states, "one can thus speak of a number of distinct criminal subgroups which differ as to ethnic makeup, age and socio-economic status, and as to value systems as well" (Finkler, 1980: 140). In his view, the abusive use of alcohol among the Inuit triggers manifest anti-social behaviour which rarely escapes police notice and action. This situation is said to result from the stress of adjustment to Euro-Canadian culture. The ensuing criminal sub-group "offers Inuit youths other criteria of prestige and self-esteem in response to their frustration and resentment at the refusal of the dominant white population to afford them full involvement in the socioeconomic fabric of Frobisher Bay" (Finkler, 1980: 140).

2.2.3 Native Youth Offenders in Adult Correctional Institutions

The statistics on federally operated adult correctional facilities for 1977 give only a small amount of information on native offenders, namely the number of admissions of native males, broken down by age and offence class. In 1977, 251 native males under age 25 were incarcerated in federal penitentiaries, making up 11.8% of all males incarcerated that year (Tables A-36 and A-36.2). As with Canada as a whole, those native males were admitted primarily for property crimes, also the offence class in which young people under age 25 formed the largest group, for both the 18-20 and 21-24 age groups. These few statistics point up the large proportion of native persons admitted annually and the similarities as to types of offences for which young people in the two age groups are admitted to correctional institutions.

Hylton (1982) reports similar findings in his study titled "The Native Offender in Saskatchewan". He states that in 1976-77, 4,344 males were admitted to provincial correctional centres in Saskatchewan. Of that number, 63.7% were of Indian ancestry. During the same period, 368 females were admitted, 85.1% of them of Indian ancestry.

Considering the total population relative to the native population, Hylton states that Indian males were 37 times more likely to be admitted to a prison than non-Indians. This figure was derived from a comparison of males over 15 years of age. Indian females over 15 were 131 times more likely to be admitted than non-Indian females.

Hylton also calculates that an Indian male aged 16 in 1976 stood a 70% chance of being admitted to a provincial correctional facility at least once before the age of 25.

In the author's words, these findings indicate that the overrepresentation of persons of Indian ancestry in Saskatchewan provincial correctional centres is partly due to a greater chance of being admitted to a correctional centre at least once, and partly due to a greater chance of being readmitted. These figures also challenge the hypothesis that it is always the same persons who reenter the system since the chance of being admitted a first time is very great.

Observing the ineffectiveness of the correctional system, Hylton goes on to say that the vast majority of those incarcerated had committed minor offences. Offences against the person accounted for only 10% of all offences resulting in incarceration. The problem of the overrepresentation of native persons in correctional institutions is not unique to Saskatchewan. As has been seen, the analysis of federal statistics and of provincial statistics for Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta and British Columbia reveal similar patterns (Hylton, 1982).

These facts in no way resolve the problem of native overrepresentation in the penal system. Authorities at the various levels of government, while sensitive to this difficult problem, have not come up with any definitive solutions.

2.3 Specific Offences

Up to this point, we have dealt with youth offenders without attributing greater weight to any one specific type of offence. To the extent that studies have broached specific aspects of the problematic behaviour of young people, it would be good to complete this portrait by reporting on the findings of those studies. This section therefore addresses vandalism, drug use and violent crime, three aspects which have proved worthy of interest on the part of those responsible for maintaining the social order.

2.3.1 Vandalism

The Ontario Task Force on Vandalism addressed this matter in an exhaustive study conducted from 1979 to 1981. Its report not only tackles the problem of defining and measuring vandalism; it also provides data from a number of pertinent surveys. Before discussing its findings, the Task Force raises the well-directed question of the cost of

vandalism. Indeed, it is important to consider more than the global cost of this particular crime. For instance, damages in the amount of $100,000 resulting from one case of arson does not reflect the same reality as a series of different acts totalling the same monetary loss. The number of persons involved is not the same.

The figures here speak for themselves. The aggregate data from a survey of 1,222 students between the ages of 9 and 19 in the Toronto Metropolitan Area and several cities in southern Ontario reveal that 89% of the high school students admitted to one or more acts of vandalism in the past 12 months.

Although such acts do not necessarily constitute serious offences, an impressive proportion of the respondents "confessed" to more serious acts. For example, 7.5% of the high school students admitted to having torn up bus or subway seats, 19.2% had slit tires and 15.3% had broken school furniture.

A breakdown by age further indicates that acts of vandalism were most prevalent among students aged 15, whereas the number of such offences declined substantially after age 16. The average number of acts of vandalism per youth stood at 16.1 for 15 year-olds, 14.5 for 16 year-olds and 10.3 for 17 year-olds. Youths 19 years of age averaged 7.1 acts of vandalism.

While recognizing that vandalism is a widespread phenomenon taking various forms, the findings of the survey in question and of other studies mentioned in the survey point to a concentration of vandalism among youths between the ages of 12 and 16.

2.3.2 Alcohol and Drugs

The problem of alcohol and drug abuse has attracted the attention not only of legislators who have drafted relevant statutes, but also of researchers who have studied the phenomenon. The portrait of delinquency would in fact be incomplete without an in-depth discussion of this issue.

The acute nature of this problem was accented by a 1979 decision by the Ontario government to raise the legal age for the possession and consumption of alcohol from 18 to 19 years old. A study conducted in Toronto by Vingilis et al. (1980) was aimed at gathering baseline data on the characteristics of users and the penalties imposed in such cases.

The average age of the subjects of the Vingilis study was 16.7 for a 16-18 range; 12% of them were female. Though the findings are to be interpreted with caution given that a high 70% of the sample had appeared in court, the typical profile which emerged revealed that the subject charged with this type of offence was a young male aged 17 who drank mostly beer. The majority of those charged were from middle-class backgrounds; they lived at home and attended school. More than half of them had already had some contact with the justice system. The young people surveyed consumed an average 2.7 drinks a day. Most said that their parents knew they drank but did not know the extent of their drinking.

Insofar as the consumption of alcohol is often accompanied by the use of narcotics, it proves interesting to look at the use (possession) and trafficking of cannabis, as this substance is likely to be used more by 15-24 year olds. The data were derived from police statistics and youth surveys.

2.3.2.1 Drugs: some regional studies

A study by Erickson (1980) on cannabis users and more particularly on the sentencing for this offence reveals that the number of persons involved in cannabis-related delinquent acts (possession, trafficking or cultivation) fell from 6,177 in 1973 to 4,955 in 1976, close to 86% for males and 14% for females. Of 4,083 subjects charged with possession in 1976, 75.4% were between the ages of 16 and 24. This represents a slight decline from 79.7% in 1973. Erickson further states that in 1974, 53% of the persons charged with possession of cannabis were under 21. His figures also show possession accounting for close to 90% of all cannabis-related delinquency.

For purposes of comparison, we now turn to data reported by the Montreal Urban Community Police Department (MUCPD). Unfortunately, the MUCPD report is not as explicit as Erickson's, particularly as regards age and sex: age is broken down into the broad categories of juveniles and adults and only juveniles are distributed by sex. The department's 1981 report indicates that the possession of cannabis formed the largest category of all drug-related offences. Note that the same finding was reported for Toronto and the same proportions applied. The 1976 data for Montreal also gives a sex distribution of close to 10% for girls. In the same city, a total of 970 cannabis-related offences were reported in 1976, well below the figure for Toronto.

Erickson's study on sentences sampled 95 cases representative of the 433 cases settled during the period under review. The author notes that the Toronto cases were dealt with much more leniently than elsewhere in Canada. Of the persons found guilty across Canada, 69% were fined and 11% were imprisoned or given a suspended sentence. In Toronto, 75% of those found guilty were released in one manner or another.

Notwithstanding the flexibility of the penalties for cannabis-related offences, Erickson underscores the potential negative effects of the criminalization of this particular delinquent behaviour. His observations are based on in-depth interviews with the subjects of his study. Given the subjects' young age, problems may arise within the family or in connection with future job opportunities. Furthermore, the users do not see themselves as criminals and believe that this perception is shared by their peers. In sum, although the consequences are not necessarily dramatic, especially for youths in the judicial district of Toronto, they create and sustain a state of anxiety and apprehension over possible penal action. Erickson concludes by saying that criminalization does nothing to solve the problems of users. In Canada, about 10% of youths aged between 18 and 29 admit to having used cannabis more than once a week. Longitudinal studies on broader samples will thus be required to better assess the scope of this problem.

The report on a survey of 3,430 British Columbia students reveals that 416 subjects between the ages of 15 and slightly over 20 used cannabis and that there was no significant difference between the sexes on this score. Russel (1970) points up an increase in use with age; his findings further show that use is not a transient phenomenon. The responses to the survey questionnaire establish a link between the consumption and frequency of consumption of alcohol and the use of cannabis. It is also found that students with more pocket money to spend stand a greater chance of using the substance. Students who have had run-ins with the law are more likely users than those who have not. The survey also establishes links between the use of cannabis and career interests, with the lowest rate of use found among students with a keen interest in physical education and the highest rate found among those interested in music and the arts, as well as among those who want to drop out of school.

In concluding this section, we note that in Quebec 17.1% of the adolescents aged 12 to 16 responded that they had used marijuana or hashish and that two years later, 32% of the same adolescents, then aged 14 to 18, answered in the affirmative (Fréchette and LeBlanc, 1979).

These surveys can only be regarded as indicative. The phenomenon of alcohol and cannabis use being fairly widespread, it seemed advisable to highlight a few salient facts. But the major issue of criminalization or non-criminalization of cannabis remains to be settled.

2.3.3 Violent Crime and Homicide

Few studies focus specifically on violent crime in Canada, making it interesting to examine the study by Chimbos and Montgomery (1978) on this subject. The data used for the study were gathered from the police files of the district of Nipissing West, a non-metropolitan area of Ontario, and cover the four crimes of homicide, sexual offence, assault and robbery.

During 1974 and 1975, 224 persons were involved in these types of offences and 212 violent acts were perpetrated. Chimbos and Montgomery distributed those individuals by age, sex and socioeconomic status. As compared to US statistics showing that these offences are committed mostly by people in their 20s and 30s, the Ontario study indicates that 53% of the authors of violent crime are between 22 and 50 years old and 22% of them are 21 and under. The sex distribution follows the general rule that very few women commit crimes of violence. In the Ontario sample, only 8.9% of the subjects were female. As for socioeconomic status, the data show that 88% of the subjects can be classed as unskilled workers or are not in the labour market at all.

Turning to Quebec, Marceau and Normandeau (1981) uncover some interesting facts in a paper on armed robbery based on the findings of a special task force. Their study examines armed robbery in the Montreal police metropolitan area by means of a sample of files opened in 1979. The suspects arrested average 22.4 years of age.

To present a more comprehensive picture, Marceau and Normandeau note that in 1979 there were 5,666 armed robberies in Quebec and the Montreal Urban Community Police Department alone responded to 3,896 complaints, which made for 68.6% of the Quebec total. Of the 104 arrests resulting in prosecution cited in the study, 76% involved adults, four of them women. All of the remainder involved males under 18 years of age. To put the finishing touch on this portrait, the subjects having robbed commercial establishments, small stores in particular, were slightly younger on the average than those having robbed financial institutions.

Homicide is included in this section of violent crime, although it pertains to a minority of young people. Indeed, it is interesting to consider to what extent young people are the victims or the perpetrators of this particularly serious crime. The information used here was gathered from a number of police departments.

The characteristics of young homicide suspects and victims are given in Table A-37 and A-38. Table A-39 gives regional statistics, which are difficult to analyse given the low figures involved. While the age distribution does not altogether satisfy our criteria, it is nevertheless a good indicator. In 1962, 42 young people aged 20 to 29 fell victim to homicide. By 1981, the number has risen to 172. In the 16-19 age group, the victim count peaked in 1977 at 65, as against 50 in 1981. In the 20-29 age group, males regularly outnumbered females in a ratio of 2 to 1.

Suspect data are by definition less complete than victim data. For, while a homicide victim can hardly escape the notice of the police, the same is not true of the perpetrator since not all cases of homicide are solved. As seen in Table A-38, in 1962, 23 youths aged 16 to 19 and 52 young adults aged 20 to 29, for proportion of 12% and 28% respectively, were suspected of homicide. These figures varied respectively to 93 and 276 in 1977, then to 99 and 243 in 1981. Thus, in absolute terms, the number of young homicide suspects exceeds that of young victims. What is more, they make up a larger proportion of all suspects, a proportion which rose during the period. In 1981, 16% of the suspects were aged 16 to 19; 40% were aged 20 to 29. The 20-29 age group showed a fairly large gain between 1962 and 1981, up from 28% to 40%. Even more markedly than among victims, homicide suspects were usually male.

Most homicides among the 16-19 age group were apparently perpetrated during the commission of another criminal act or in cases where the suspect and victim had a social or business relationship. In the 20-29 age group, business relationships dominated among male suspects, whereas females suspects usually had a familial relationship with their victims.

2.4 Longitudinal Studies

Longitudinal studies are typically analyses which track samples over a period of time. The subjects are encountered at a given time, then recontacted at a later date and measured by means of the same techniques used during the initial encounter. Consequently, the sets of findings from this type of analysis have the advantage of assessing change. While longitudinal studies are not in widespread use, if only because of the

costs involved, they are even rarer in the area of youth crime in Canada. This section deals with two longitudinal studies, which have already been discussed here, one dealing with subjects in an open setting in the Montreal area (Biron et al., 1977) and the other based on a court sample (Fréchette and LeBlanc, 1979).

2.4.1 Open Setting

The longitudinal study of Montreal adolescents was begun in 1974 and resumed in 1976 (Biron, Caplan and LeBlanc, 1975 and 1977). It resulted in a number of noteworthy findings: (1) little change occurred from 1974 to 1976 among the subjects who altered their behaviour; (2) youths abandoning delinquent behaviour outnumbered those who began committing such acts; and (3) drug-related delinquency stood out from the other types of offences.

By way of illustration, one needs only consider that of the 825 subjects interviewed on the two occasions, 14.8% responded in 1974 that they had committed no criminal offence, as opposed to a status offence (see definition, page 14). In 1976, the proportion rose to 18.5% (Sarrazin, 1979). A more detailed look at the type of change indicates that 43.3% of the youths reported no change between 1974 and 1976. Of the group as a whole, 28.5% either cut down on delinquency or stopped altogether. Another interesting fact revealed by the longitudinal analysis of youths in an open setting is that 10.5% of the subjects stopped committing acts of vandalism and 20.2% stopped petty thefts, whereas 20% began to get involved in drugs.

In short, in an open setting, aging is accompanied by some normalization of behaviour. What of the more marginal environment represented by the courts?

2.4.2 Closed Setting

The study by Fréchette (1976) is of particular interest in that it tracks male subjects encountered initially in 1974 and then on several subsequent occasions. The subject placed for long-term stays in training schools were eliminated since they lacked the physical means of engaging in delinquency.

In the first analysis, after two years the subjects (averaging 17 years of age) exhibited no appreciable decline in delinquent activity, which simply shifted emphasis. Being brought to court had no real effect on future behaviour. Furthermore, over the period major changes occurred in the delinquency observed during the initial encounter, the most spectacular change being unquestionably a dramatic drop in shoplifting, petty theft, vandalism and other minor offences. Noteworthy also is the rise in motor vehicle theft and major theft (Fréchette and LeBlanc, 1979). Thus, after two years, delinquency among wards of the court, although fairly widespread up to age 18, reached its peak during the first half of adolescence. The particular interest of this cohort lies in the second round of analyses based on subsequent information gathered from the same subjects. By 1977, adult police records had been established. Averaging 19 years of age, the 470 subjects from the original

sample were strongly represented in the official statistics, with 40.2% of them having an adult police record. Such records were more prevalent among the subjects who had exhibited delinquent behaviour at the time of the first and second encounters (Lagier, 1983).

Four years later, in 1981, the research team again encountered the same base sample and observed substantial differences as compared to the 1977 findings. The official adult crime rate for the 470 subjects, aged 23 at that point, stood at 71.9%. While few major changes occurred during adolescence, this latest survey revealed a resurgence of delinquent activity in the adult years. This very observation prompted Lagier (1983) to describe the passage from adolescence to adulthood as a critical period. Between the average ages of 19 and 23, the official crime rate rose 78.8% for the cohort as a whole. The span from 18 to 25 years of age is all the more critical if the adult engaged in delinquency in his or her juvenile years.

In addition to analysis of police records, the study focused on 30 subjects distinguished by the persistence, volume, diversity and seriousness of their crime profile. The criteria used to single out these subjects are presented by Lagier (1982). One can justifiably speak of a criminal career in the case of these 30 individuals, who admitted to the commission of 12,470 offences before age 15. None of them reported less than 50 offences. At the time of the second encounter, 14 highly active subjects accounted for two-thirds of the offences committed. By the third encounter, the 30 subjects had accumulated 280 offences as adult delinquents.

This illustrates the observation that while many young people commit delinquent acts at one time or another, few of them persist and even fewer become what can be termed major producers of crime. Still, longitudinal studies point to generalized involvement in delinquent acts during the adolescent years and a subsequent decline as the subjects age, as well as a shift in the delinquency of those who continue to commit offences, with the emphasis moving from vandalism and shoplifting to motor vehicle theft.

The long-term follow-up of a sample of youths singled out by the courts also points up that even given a labelled population, there is no guaranteed success of pinpointing those who have been described as the hard-core habitual offender. Although a strong majority of the youths surveyed have a police record, only a handful of them are major producers of crime, and these are the subjects who devote most of their energies to such ends. Longitudinal studies have focused attention on these subjects in an effort to analyse the personality of individuals who stand out by the magnitude and seriousness of their delinquent behaviour.

According to the study by Lagier (1982), there is no real evolution in the personality of the hard-core habitual offender between the ages of 15 and 17. In fact, the author states that most of the significant changes are to be interpreted as a deterioration of the personality (p. 150). The findings indicate that by the end of adolescence, this type of delinquent completely ignores the rules governing interpersonal relationships and becomes a stranger in his own house, as it were.

Lagier arrives at the conclusion that the personality structure of hard-core habitual offenders sets them apart from non-delinquents. Moreover, the different personality structure is accompanied by serious antisocial behaviour. Ultimately, this style of interaction could crystallize and result in a criminal personality.

Analysis of the data gathered in the school environment reveals that deviating from established rules is part of the process of growing up. Still, certain circumstances foster or discourage such deviance. In the same vein, a series of studies has pointed up bonds which have a more or less direct impact on delinquent behaviour. Although it is not possible to provide definitive explanations for this type of behaviour, we can still comment on a number of concomitant aspects.

2.5 Conclusion

It is never easy to develop a synthesis from unmatched series of elements. Indeed, the crime portrait which emerges from official statistics is not the same as the one projected by self-report data. As an added factor, 31% of the young adults between the ages of 20 and 24 identified by the criminal justice system put in one or more subsequent appearances. We also know that certain segments of society, i.e. the disadvantaged, poorly educated and native population, are more visible than others. The youth crime portrait further reveals that school-based adolescents also commit offences but are rarely apprehended. The data reported in this section also show an increased representation of girls in the statistics, although they are still in the minority. These are the highlights reported thus far in this report.

Compounding the complexity of the issue, Philippe Robert (1977) states that it is inappropriate to use criminal justice statistics to understand crime (p. 20). He fears that the user might misunderstand the message conveyed by the statistics.

In this connection, our cautionary preliminary remarks regarding the compilation and import of this type of data are in reference to the notion of visibility of specific classes, groups and individuals. What the statistics reveal is that crime is largely dependent upon young people from the disadvantaged class and, in certain regions, upon the native population. In addition, female adolescents and young adults are increasingly swelling the ranks of the guilty.

Self-reported delinquency, however, reveals another reality. While true that self-report data pertain to a category of individuals aged 18 and under, they also show that these young people have committed offences, most of them have not been apprehended by the police and they come from all strata of society.

Given this, it is surprising, to say the least, to find the most disadvantaged individuals--underprivileged youths and natives--as clients of the criminal justice system. If the statistics were to be believed, we could simplistically conclude that disadvantaged youths aged 15-24, natives and juvenile females are responsible for the crime problem, as they are visibly represented in the police environment, the courts and the detention centres.

Most of the offences committed by young people are property crimes, meaning that the stakes entail material losses. But what of the losses stemming from white-collar crime? Are they not infinitely higher? Furthermore, this type of crime is committed by adults in position of power. This particular manifestation of crime poses problems of building evidence, proving guilt and punishing the perpetrators. Consequently, the individuals involved rarely figure in the crime scene.

The crime portrait drawn here is comprised mainly of "losers", the people who have been caught. This is made all the clearer by research findings showing that the major producers of crime make up a small proportion of offenders as a whole. The next section dealing with the concomitant aspects of delinquency illustrates that being a loser in the criminal justice system spells handicaps in other areas as well.

3. ANALYSIS OF CONCOMITANT ASPECTS

The portrait of youth crime sketched in this report reveals that (a) young people are active contributors to crime, (b) their criminal involvement declines as their career plans take shape, (c) more boys than girls engage in criminal activity, (d) the rise in delinquency is attributable more to girls than to boys, (e) the statistics tell only part of the story, namely the visible part. In this last connection, the native population can be regarded as visible.

Do these facts allow for sound, satisfactory explanations? As the portrait is a complex one, it seems futile to engage in strictly causal analysis. Indeed, the crime profiles drawn from official statistics and self-report data are not a perfect match, and any attempt to establish formal links of causality risks confusing rather than clarifying matters. Rather than working from a purely causal perspective, light would better be shed on the phenomenon of crime among young people between the ages of 15-24 by examining concepts and elements conducive to a better understanding of the problem. Involved here are theories, specific elements, attitudes and the associated formal and informal reactions.

3.1 Theoretical Considerations

In this section, the foregoing facts will be the focus of particular attention to the fact that although a great many adolescents are involved in delinquency, their involvement does not generally point to a criminal career.

Over the past forty years, many theories have been developed to account for delinquent behaviour. Insofar as most of them have centred on the notion of juvenile delinquency, they are fairly relevant to young people aged 15-24.

From 1940 to 1960, the Americans dominated the conceptual and empirical areas of criminology. Not surprisingly, then, they were and still are a force to be reckoned with: a tradition has been established. Coinciding with the developmental stage of criminological thought, the United States was living through an era marked by immigration and the Second World War. The appeal of a better life generated massive European emigration to the United States, as well as a south-north population flow within the country.

That context explains in part the orientation of criminological theory towards problems of value and culture conflicts and normlessness. The theories in question (see Sellin, 1938; Sutherland and Cressey, 1955) postulate that contemporary society projects an image of permanent social disorganization stemming from the absence of common values. It is the contention of social disorganization theorists that "People never violate the norms of their own groups, only the norms of other groups" (Kornhauser, 1978, p. 29). Applying this concept to the problems of native peoples, it could be argued that what may appear deviant is only a label which an outgroup attaches to types of conduct considered normal by the native peoples themselves.

For Nettler (1974) and others, these positions are refined by the addition of a normative component. Nettler points out that different groups accept conduct norms in different ways. Sociologists, he notes, hold that the differences in the definitions which govern the legitimacy or pertinence of the laws are integrated. Viewing the delinquency of native peoples in this light, we are inclined to believe that these normative conflicts constitute an interesting perspective from which to study the problem but do not provide for a full explanation of the phenomenon. As regards native delinquency and, with even greater reason, the rise in delinquency among girls, the theoretical concepts relating to social reaction would also have to be considered. Empirical research centred on the formal or informal reaction will be discussed later. For now, we note the special interest which this aspect has drawn in recent years. Schur (1971), Hagan (1977), Robert (1977), Smart (1977), Christie (1981) and Gibbs (1981), to mention only a few, have broached this issue from various angles; some pointing up the differential reaction to certain groups of individuals, others focusing on the punishment awarded and still others analysing the consequences of the punishment.

While it is possible to attribute the apparent rise in juvenile female representation in the crime statistics to their greater involvement in different areas of social activity, the attitude of the agents of social control must also be evaluated (Smart, 1977).

Hagan (1977) states that the police typically apprehend native offenders on minor alcohol-related charges. While it is difficult to establish systematic class bias on the part of the police, Hagan notes that native persons often come to towns and cities from surrounding reserves and are highly conspicuous in public urban areas. He further finds that the definition of the laws which affect native offenders provides an added explanation for their massive representation in the statistics, particularly as regards alcohol abuse. Incidentally, until 1969 native people were prohibited from being intoxicated outside of their reserves. Hagan (1977) analyses the consequences of the law and its enforcement on native peoples, with special attention to drinking.

The accent thus far has been on concepts relating mainly to the representation of native peoples and females in the official statistics. We will now introduce notions pertaining to property offences.

It was revealed in the section on the description of crime that property crimes account for most of the delinquent acts perpetrated by young people. What arguments are used to explain this type of crime? The focus here is on the concept of anomie (Merton, 1957) and of goals and opportunities (Cloward and Ohlin, 1960). The term "anomie" goes back to Durheim and his theory concerning suicide. Applied to delinquency, it raises the notion of social disorganization. Society is seen as presenting confused--or even conflicting--models of conduct (Nettler, 1974). This remark is particularly significant as regards youth. A high value is placed on work and education and specialization are strongly encouraged, while concomitantly youth unemployment is rampant. On a parallel front, advertisers tout all manner of consumer goods--records, stylish clothes, restaurants, and so on--to a target population which cannot always afford them. Then, too, women are often seductively portrayed as sex objects at the same time as young girls are

encouraged to be active, independent members of society. These are all conflicting messages, another example being the adult role model wherein individuals who drink heavily, cheat the tax collector or steal from their employers and preach honesty and moderation to their children.

Merton's ideas were taken up by Cloward and Ohlin (1960), who stress the discrepancies between culturally defined goals and the acceptable means of achieving those goals. They hypothesize that the disparity between what lower-class youth are led to want and what is actually available to them is a major problem of adjustment. Young people therefore neutralize their frustration by exploring less legitimate avenues of access.

Though these concepts have met with some measure of success, they are largely inoperable owing to the ambiguity of the terms used. Consideration of such motives as the pursuit of excitement, living for the moment or simply having fun could no doubt improve our understanding of the stakes in criminal involvement (Cussion, 1981).

Pursuing our efforts at understanding, it is appropriate at this point to move beyond theoretical considerations and take a look at the empirical studies which might validate these theories.

3.2 Empirical Research

While the earlier theories had the disadvantage of providing little in the way of an empirical foundation, which drawback considerably weakened their practical application, the hypothesis which Hirschi aired in 1969 brought a fresh outlook to criminological thought. Hirschi's theory of social control merits special attention in that it has been extensively cited and put to empirical validation and in that it furnishes some explanation of official delinquency, projected by statistics, and hidden delinquency, revealed only through research findings. Hirschi starts by criticizing the dominant theoretical trends centred on cultural deviance or strain theories (goals vs means), then goes on to formulate a theory based on the social bond concept. He argues that an individual must establish a number of bonds with society in order to achieve conformity. On this point, Hirshci falls in line with theorists who contend that an individual left to his own devices will seek only his own pleasure and the satisfaction of his passions.

Much of the originality of Hirschi's work lies in his refinement of the notion of social bond. Though others before him set out the ideas of attachment and commitment, he is to be credited with examining these dimensions in depth and making them operational.

Hirschi specifies four elements as constituting the preferred social bond: attachment, commitment, involvement and belief. The less an individual is bound by these elements, the less constraint he or she feels and the greater the change of engaging in deviant behaviour. Attachment denotes the bond to significant individuals and encourages positive responses to their legitimate whishes and expectations so as not to cause them disappointment or risk losing their trust and affection. Commitment refers to the active pursuit of career aspirations and plans for the future; delinquency, if discovered, might well jeopardize such plans.

Involvement carries a connotation of engrossment in conventional activities and recreational interests. The belief element refers to respect for the legitimacy of conventional norms.

This analytical model has been extensively applied to samples in the United States but has been used very little in Canada. It thus seems expedient to examine the Canadian studies at some length in order to further our thinking and understanding. The findings will be discussed in terms of the four dimensions defined in Hirschi's Model.

3.2.1 Attachment

Some researchers have emphasized the important role which the affective component plays in the manifestation of deviant behaviour. Both family and friends are strongly influential in this regard. The affective component as it relates to the family denotes identification and communication with parental figures, as well as parental supervision. Where friends are concerned, it is more a matter of association and possible pressures from young peers, who exert a definite persuasive influence.

Biron (1974) illustrates the family's weight using a sample of 437 Montreal girls and boys between the ages of 12 and 16. Her findings show family-related measures as having a much stronger influence on girls than on boys. Moreover, the family influence is weaker among 15-16 year olds than among the younger subjects. This last observation is particularly significant, pointing to a lapse in the parental hold as the youths age. We can therefore hypothesize that the environment outside the home, the peer group to be precise, would form a better frame of reference for older adolescents.

Bear in mind, however, the family's strong influence on 12-16 year olds, particularly in the area of supervision, which denotes that the parent or parents keep track of the child's whereabouts and companions. The study by Biron (1974) further demonstrates that parental awareness of the child's activities and friends has a far greater impact on self-reported delinquency than do such structural variables as the mother's working outside the home, a broken home environment or the number of siblings.

Working from a sample of 825 Montreal adolescents aged 14 to 18, Bayreuther (1978) shows the family exerting far less influence when considered side by side with certain psychological factors. While supervision alone--or the lack of it--accounts for some part of deviant behaviour ($R^2 = .08$), other elements linked to the family environment lag far behind scales such as social maladjustment or anxiety or manifest aggressiveness.

The research findings reported involved an adolescent population comprised mostly of students. Interestingly, in a sample of boys having had some contact with the juvenile courts, the family influence was lacking owing to the very inexistence of the family. The adolescents in questions no longer had a stake in the family bond, which was extremely fragile (Parizé, 1980).

Noteworthy, too, is that for girls who have had experience with the court system and have been institutionalized, the family holds a predominant place--in their conversation--in spite of repeated placement in foster homes (Gagnon and Langelier-Biron, 1982).

A little earlier we spoke of the adolescent's attachment to the family but even more to friends. The approach typically used for this type of analysis consists in examining the influence of delinquent peers. This approach has the advantage of producing clear results. For one, there is a remarkable similarity between the findings of Thibault (1974), who analysed the responses of a sample of Montreal students aged 15 and 16, and Claveau (1977), who sampled adolescents aged 14 to 18. Claveau states that "associating with individuals who can be regarded as marginal or deviant exerts an influence likely to induce the subjects to engage in the same conduct" (p. 187). These findings are highly significant when coupled with the fact that 70% of the youths encountered in the juvenile court setting admitted to stealing in the company of accomplices (Fréchette and LeBlanc, 1979).

Taking this a little further, we can advance that matched against the other elements of Hirschi's social control model, delinquent friends stand out strongly (Caplan, 1979). Caplan points out that respect for authority or belief in the normative system may nevertheless "limit the possibilities of association with delinquent friends" (p. 109).

The findings which bear upon the attachment component of the social bond show the family exerting an indirect effect on deviant behaviour, with that influence manifested most strongly through parental supervision. As the adolescent grows older, the weight of the family diminishes, although this is more evident among boys than among girls. It is also shown that youths strongly handicapped by official delinquency find it difficult to speak of family attachment since, for them, the family is a theoretical concept with little or no factual basis. Multiple placements make family bonding tenuous at best.

The same findings show that friends--delinquent friends in particular--exert a growing influence as the adolescent moves towards adulthood. This influence has been verified mostly in terms of deviant conduct and in the perspective proposed by Hirschi. In instances where the family bond is weakened or breaks down altogether, it is plausible to suppose that youths find support and recognition among their peers, who, lacking parental supervision, may be involved in delinquent activities and exert a negative influence on adolescents lacking a sound supportive environment.

3.2.2 Commitment

If the attachment to key individuals proves important, what of commitment to conventional lines of action? The bond between an individual and society also takes the form of commitment to a career plan. The greater the investment in the preparation and achievement of long-term goals, the less freedom there is to engage in delinquent acts, which would risk jeopardizing such plans.

For 15-16 year-olds, a plan or career denotes activities in both the school and the workplace. We will therefore review studies on the influence exerted by school commitment and the job environment or, more specifically, the transition from school to workplace.

The analysis by Laberge-Altmejd (1976) of a sample of 3,070 Montreal youths aged 12 to 16 can be used as a guideline to clarify our thinking on the link between school and delinquency. We are dealing here with self-reported delinquency. The author points out that the school setting focuses primarily on performance rather than personal development. In this context, social maladjustment measured from the behavioural perspective is a response adapted to the position of unease and the problems experienced by the student (p. 131). Sequentially, the lack of school commitment leads to school maladjustment, which in turn leads to a pattern of deviant behaviour.

The steps along the path from school commitment to delinquency are validated by means of a somewhat more complex model developed in 1978 by Biron. Findings derived from the sample used by Laberge-Altmejd (1976) point up that the commitment to school has no direct effect on delinquency. The decisive factor is realization of the risk of being apprehended if one commits an offence. The findings further indicate that the fear of apprehension is influenced by the investment in academic pursuits.

Based on these same results, it can be established that work has a direct impact on delinquent behaviour among youths between the ages of 12 and 16. The more an adolescent engages in part-time work, the more he or she commits delinquent acts. This is explained, at least in part, by the type of jobs available to 15-16 year olds, e.g. delivery, paper routes, baby-sitting and clerking in stores. Biron's findings show that at this stage, investment in work detracts from studies, puts the adolescents in contact with older adults, makes them more financially independent of their parents and thereby makes family control more difficult.

The work dimension is actually a double-edged determinant, which has a negative influence on younger adolescents and a positive influence on older youths. Thus, Pronovost (1979) used a sample of 284 Montreal adolescent girls and boys aged 15 to 19 to analyse the transition from school to workplace. He first shows that this transition generates a sharp decline in youth delinquency. There is no significant validation of this observation among young people who leave school and end up jobless. For those who fail both academically and on the job market, the double failure and feeling of drift may encourage delinquent behaviour. In such cases, delinquency may provide a certain gratification to adolescents who are losers as far as conventional expectations are concerned.

It has been successfully established that the school is a preferred place of bonding for adolescents and that the school bond materializes in a low level of delinquency. Thus, the adolescent who pursues an academic career and score good grades exhibits no real problems of delinquency. In contrast, for those who are ill at ease in school, who fail and finally lose interest in such an ungratifying environment, delinquency represents an area of activity that is both exciting and profitable. There are fewer risks, for they have nothing to lose.

Hartnagal and Tanner (1982) obtained much the same results from a sample of 733 students in Edmonton, Alberta. The subjects' responses confirm the importance of the bond by revealing that low school commitment is associated with theft, vandalism and drinking.

The bond theory of social control is confirmed here again to the extent that adolescents who leave school fairly early are retrieved by the workplace and that this new bond has a bearing on delinquency. Thus, for drop-outs or the school maladjusted, the lack of bond affords the poorest guarantees as to delinquent behaviour.

3.2.3 Involvement

As Hirschi means it, involvement refers to the use of free time for the pursuit of conformist activities. This dimension has been empirically validated by Biron (1976), who stressed sports-related activities. In this respect, the results do not support Hirschi's theoretical framework, which formed the basis for presentation of the study results. The coefficients which measure the correlation between the time spent on sports and delinquent behaviour are very close to zero.

There are several plausible explanations for these low coefficients. First, the effect of involvement could be indirect and escape the direct relation in question. Thus, this involvement could generate a better self-image and increased confidence and have an impact on academic performance rather than on delinquent behaviour. The effects could also be double-edged, i.e. positive in the ways just described but also negative in that sports could facilitate association with more marginal companions, thereby triggering a sequence wherein affiliation could influence delinquency.

It is also plausible that involvement in sports or other pastimes has no dominant influence. While this dimension is interesting from the conceptual standpoint, that interest does not translate into fact. The situation is entirely different as regards the belief dimension.

3.2.4 Belief

Belief measured in relation to penal norms proves to be directly linked to delinquent behaviour. The approach generally used to evaluate the correlation of these two elements consists in asking young subjects whether or not they agree with peers who commit a given delinquent act[17]. In a study of Montreal adolescents, Biron (1978) succeeded in establishing a strong link between belief and delinquent behaviour (gamma = -.68). This holds more or less equally for both girls and boys (Biron and Cusson, 1979). These findings are open to several interpretations: allegiance to the norm generates conformity to the norm; acting in keeping with the law prompts adherence to the norm, whereas delinquency incites rejection of the norm. Plausibly, the more individuals engage in delinquent activity, the more they modify their beliefs in an effort to justify their deviance.

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[17] The questionnaire surveyed eight delinquent acts, including vandalism, shoplifting and drinking.

Analysis of the longitudinal data gathered in 1974 and 1976 among students aged 14 to 18 in the Montreal Metropolitan Area suggests one hypothesis over the others. It reveals that young people who had committed offences at the time of the first encounter displayed a fairly strong negative correlation[18] at the time of the second encounter. The commission of offences did not increase the likelihood of their denying their belief in the criminal justice system. They continued to believe that it was wrong for young people their age to commit certain specified offences, which did not prevent them from doing so on occasion.

There is nothing surprising about this persistence of beliefs on the first and second encounters if we consider the strength of the correlation between belief and delinquent behaviour measured at any given time. Caplan's findings (1979) based on the same sample show belief in the normative system dominating all other other elements of his model. This dominance is validated by simultaneous analysis of all the variables wherein it is shown that the specific influence of belief (Beta = -.21) holds up outside of the possible correlations between delinquency and the other explanatory factors.

In a somewhat different vein of the same perspective of social control, Linden and Currie (1977) establish a correlation between religious belief and drug use. Their baseline data were gathered from a sample of 750 youths between the ages of 15 and 24. The beliefs in question were measured on the basis of church attendance and the influence of religion. The findings show that the stronger the religious beliefs, the less the subjects used marijuana and that the influence of religious beliefs on the use of marijuana was stronger among girls than boys.

This section on the analysis of the concomitant aspects of crime has dealt mainly with the operativeness of a model centred on social control through the bond between youths and their environment. Indeed, in our view, this model is more suited to portraying a phenomenon which, although generalized, exhibits no real intensity. We mean by this that the black picture of youth crime as painted, at least in part, by self-reporting questionnaires, points to major youth involvement in delinquency but shows little persistence in this line of action. A theory such as that of social control seems more appropriate for this purpose than theories which centre on social or cultural disparities.

While it has been empirically demonstrated that the bond between youth and society offers some guarantee of conformity, other facts will have to be considered for the small number of youths who make their way into the crime statistics and the even smaller cohort who persist in a criminal career.

To round out this analysis of the concomitant aspects of youth crime, we will consider in turn the attitudes of young people and the reactions to delinquency.

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18 The stronger their belief in the value of norms, the less their involvement in delinquency.

3.3 Attitudes

The strong influence of the bond between adolescents and their environment on youth crime has been demonstrated. The disjointing or weakening of this social fabric may be a gradual process. For some authors, including Matza (1964), such deterioration stems from a series of rationalizations which turn the victim into the guilty party. These "neutralizing" techniques are aimed at the criminal justice system, careless individuals and the privileged members of society. They are geared to stress intransigence or injustice, which, in the eyes of those who reason along these lines, justify criminal conduct. By way of illustration, we might cite an adolescent who believes that the person who leaves his car keys in the ignition is as guilty as the person who steals the car. Concurrently, it is important to examine the attitudes of youth in general regarding certain criminal issues so as to ascertain the ascendency which social control may exert over them. These questions will be examined here on the basis of studies and surveys having measured these dimensions.

Amoroso and Ware (1981) report on two Canadian studies conducted prior to their own. Based on an analysis of data from two Black communities of Nova Scotia, Henry (1973) concludes that Blacks perceive the police as being indifferent, vindictive or haughty towards them. The study by Pitman (1977) underscores negative stereotypes on the part of the police and the residents of Toronto. These stereotypes are particularly evident between the police and adolescents from ethnic minorities. Amoroso and Ware (1981) conducted their study in a medium-sized city of southern Ontario and a major metropolitan area. The subjects were 11 to 17 years old, and the researchers validated their analysis by sex and age. Unlike the other studies, the young people in this sample exhibited a positive attitude towards the police. Interestingly, this favourable attitude decreased with age and was more prevalent among girls.

Following upon a more searching analysis of the data, the authors also report that the attitude towards teachers is an excellent indicator of the attitude towards the police. They further state that teachers exert a more decisive influence on attitudes than do parents. While these findings confirm a model of acceptance of authority figures, they make it clear that such acceptance is not necessarily transmitted by parents.

A Canada-wide poll of 15-24 year olds (Goldfarb, 1983) rounds out this issue. The respondents were questioned on their degree of respect for the police. The differences in the responses cannot be clearly linked to sex or age. Differential responses are observed, however, for the two coastal regions: 81.6% of the British Columbia respondents said that they had very high or moderately high respect for the police; the corresponding proportion was 92.4% in the Maritimes. The Prairies registered the highest proportion of young people having the least respect for the police (5.4%).

As for the legal system, little difference is observed by sex or age, with only 5% more girls than boys indicating great respect for the system. According to the responses, young people aged 15-19 had more respect for the legal system than did their elders aged 20-24, in a proportion of 7%.

Responses to a question on the importance of law and order reveal a deep-rooted trend towards conformity, with 95% of the subjects in favour of respect of law and order. This percentage held by age, sex and region.

The last question of the Goldfarb poll (1983) pertinent to this study concerned the legalization of marijuana. The responses of the subjects aged 15-24 fall in line with the conventional perspective which governs the other attitudes. A majority of them opposed the legalization of cannabis. Among the opponents, girls slightly outnumbered boys and opposition was somewhat stronger among the 15-19 age group than among the 20-24 group.

A 1982 Gallup poll revealed that 83.6% of young people aged 18 to 24 had confidence in the police system. In contrast, confidence in the legal system stood at only 65.1%. In this age group, 54.7% were in favour of capital punishment.

It is noteworthy that similar proportions were observed among respondents aged 25 and over, with the exception of capital punishment, where 67.9% were in favour of the death penalty.

Forty per cent of the youths polled believed that imprisonment was a suitable means of rehabilitation, whereas 23% saw it as a mean of protecting the public or paying for one's mistakes.

In short, the attitudes exhibited by a number of Canadian young people attest to a trend towards conformism and conventional values. Manifestly, these attitudes do not stem from an orientation centred on revolt or hedonism. Given a population characterized by allegiance to conventional values, does social reaction exert any measurable influence?

3.4 Reaction to Delinquency

Biron et al. (1978) state that "victims, parents and witnesses confronted with an act legally deemed a crime may either reaffirm the rule which was violated or else let it pass, thereby suggesting that the rule was not worth defending" (p. 120).

The findings of Kijewski (1983) add unquestionable weight to this assertion, as do other studies on social reaction on which we will report. The data which Kijewski gathered in 1976 among 124 Toronto youths aged 10 to 15 were followed up four years later. The author paired the data by age, sex, seriousness of the offence and previous run-ins with the police. Seventy-one of the subjects were charged by the police, while the other 71 were simply cautioned. Four years later, in 1980, the records were compared. The average number of run-ins with the police as a result of delinquency activity stood at 2.65 for the youths charged in 1976 and 1.92 for those who had been cautioned.

Based on these results and more detailed analyses, Kijewski concludes that the subjects who were arrested displayed no significant differences as to future delinquent behaviour compared to those who had not been arrested. In his view, while some type of reaction is called for, reaction involving the police and the courts is not a cure-all for the problem of delinquency.

Doob and Chan (1982) examined the issue of formal reaction in an article titled "Factors affecting Police Decisions to take Juveniles to Court." Their study, undertaken in 1976 in southern Ontario, involved 46 observational studies in which police officers were accompanied on their eight-hour shifts, 325 adolescents and 32 simulation experiments with 18 Youth Bureau officers as participants. Analysis of all the material gathered shows that while one single negative factor does not necessarily lead to a charge, it may be sufficient grounds for arrest. When several factors seem inconsistent, the chances of the case being referred to court are random.

The discussion initiated by Doob and Chan is in line with the reformulation of the Youth Offenders Act whereby only serious offences are referred to the court. The authors state that while it is the function of the police to maintain order, they should also realize that they have more than one card to play and that court referral is an extreme measure.

The matter of social reaction boils down to the fact that reaction is important but should occur in the immediate environment and very early in the process. For, as stated by Cusson (1983), "the community's intolerance of a given deviant act curbs the tendency to commit that act" (p. 125).

This has been validated among young Montreal students. In the study by Biron and Cusson (1979), one question concerned the anticipated parental reaction: What would your parents do if they found out you had taken something from a store without paying for it? Eighty-two per cent of the subjects who responded that their parents would do nothing had an above-average rate of delinquency. Delinquency was less frequent among those who expected some type of reproach.

Still, one should guard against ascribing imaginary merits to punishment, which may have a negative instead of a positive effect. In point of fact, badgering and humiliating the perpetrator accentuate a certain form of rejection and thereby accentuate delinquent behaviour.

Social reaction to delinquent acts can hardly be regarded as a simple issue. Empirical studies point up the importance of reinstating the rule which has been violated. Excessive severity, on the other hand, very often generates negative effects, whereas tolerance hints at complicity in one form or another. What is more, the effects of punishment differ depending on time, place and circumstances, all factors which compound the problem.

4. COSTS AND EVALUATION OF SOCIAL CONTROL

4.1 Material Costs

The actual material costs of crime are always extremely difficult to establish since they not only include law enforcement, court and correctional services but encompass a series of unquantifiable indirect expenditures linked to the economy, the labour market and other factors.

What available information exists on these material costs is presented here for reference only. This word of caution is prompted by the age breakdown chosen for our study. The juvenile data series largely exceed our 15-18 age span, just as the adult data exceed our 24-year limit. Still, given that 53% of federal penitentiary inmates are between 20 and 29 years old, the data in question hold some interest for us.

The 1981-82 edition of Adult Correctional Services in Canada reported the total cost of operating the country's adult correctional services at $976 million, broken down as an expenditure of $476 million for the provinces and $500 million for the federal government. The lion's share of that budget was earmarked for case management and custodial and technical services.

The cost per inmate given in the Solicitor General's 1981-82 report stood at $47,043 for males (maximum security) and $62,395 for females[19]. The gross annual maintenance cost for a federal penitentiary inmate was $41,696. The corresponding cost of following up an inmate released on parole or mandatory supervision was $4,327. In 1982, the prison population comprised an average 8,938 inmates. During the same period, 6,485 individuals were released on full parole, day parole or mandatory supervision.

Costs for juveniles display a different trend: they are on the rise. An unpublished document by the Quebec Ministry of Social Affairs put the cost in 1982-83 at $60,527 for a juvenile boy detained in a security institution for boy; the average budget for girls in security institutions was a comparable $53,025 per inmate.

To provide a more comprehensive picture, this summary look at the costs of social control would benefit from consideration of not only economic factors but of social factors as well.

4.2 Social Costs

Apart from the "costs of crime" as defined and analysed by criminal justice administrators and economists, the criminal justice system generates non-monetary social costs. In an in-depth analysis of this issue, Landreville et al. (1981) speak of the social costs, i.e. judiciary-legal, court, socio-economic and psychosocial costs, borne by offenders.

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[19] This higher cost is attributable to the smaller female prison population. The inmate count averaged 3,096 for males, as compared to 78 for females.

Based on 42 interviews with selected "clients" of the criminal justice system, ranging from 20 to 30 years of age for the most part, the authors establish that the prisons are populated essentially by the disadvantaged, the poor and native persons charged with petty theft. The report underlines that the most striking disparities in punishments surface among the most disadvantaged segment of society. It is also seen that contact with the criminal justice system does not entail the same social costs for all social classes. To take an example, the individuals whom the system hits hardest and most often are the same individuals who will have a harder time finding work. They are also the ones with the fewest resources, i.e. legal counsel, family and connections, to offset the social costs incurred. The path of these lower-class individuals is largely predetermined. The criminal justice system can only lower the status of offenders who were already employed. The lot of the jobless offender may well deteriorate even further, with the only options open being underpaid or seasonal labour.

For more well-to-do offenders, a run-in with the criminal justice system may jeopardize academic achievement or career and professional plans. On the other hand, the cultural background of these individuals guarantees the availability of services: their delinquent acts are often shrouded in secrecy and certain adverse repercussions of their behaviour are thereby averted. Legal counsel plays an important role for the more privileged offenders, with their lawyers keeping them out of prison, winning reduced terms of emprisonment, etc. As these observations illustrate, hidden behind the visible monetary costs are social costs, which, albeit less amenable to definition and evaluation, are high nevertheless.

4.3 Effectiveness of Social Control

Reference to the effectiveness of social control suggests the idea of evaluation and results. These are highly complex issues and the temptation has been great to link effectiveness to the rate of recidivism. In a searching analysis of recidivism as a factor in the evaluation of criminal justice measures, Landreville (1982) discusses a number of relevant methodological problems.

Without going into the details of this debate, we should at least note that considering absolute discharges or paroles may make a difference. This being said, Landreville reports on a study by Langlois, who evaluated recidivism on the basis of subsequent convictions among 1,664 subjects released from Quebec penitentiaries between 1958 and 1961. The rate of recidivism ranged from 29% after one year to 65% after 10 years. In 1968 Waller studied a similar population in Ontario and arrived at recidivism rates of 38% after one year and 56% after two years. Landreville also mentions a study by the Department of the Solicitor General which reveals that in 1970 the recidivism rate for Canadian parolees stood at 29% after one year. In a longer-term study by the department on a similar population, the recidivism rate for subjects cottasurveyed in 1967 was 49% after five years, as opposed to 24% after one year.

By way of conclusion, Landreville (1982) points out that the criminal justice system strikes hardest and most often at the poor, blacks, natives and young males from disadvantaged classes. These observations concur with the portrait drawn in this report.

Insofar as social control proves difficult to evaluate on the basis of recidivism, fuller information can perhaps be obtained through evaluative analysis of the institutions involved. Few such studies have been undertaken in Canada. Although Cusson (1974) pointed up an institutional crisis in Quebec, manifested at the time by underutilization of detention space, the situation has since changed considerably, with the institutions registering maximum occupancy rates. But where do things stand as far as treatment is concerned?

A recent study by LeBlanc (1983) on the Boscoville centre allows for the examination of a particularly well-structured therapeutic environment. In the author's view, this centre lends itself to evaluation given that from 1974 to 1978 treatment was uniformly administered in all sectors of re-education to a specific cohort, i.e. 116 boys between the ages of 14 and 18. LeBlanc's findings show improvement in the psychological profile of the subjects who underwent treatment at Boscoville as compared to their profile on admission. The youths who initially exhibited a rather negative profile made marked progress. Improvement among those having a favourable profile on admission was less evident. What of the post-institution profiles?

During the first year after treatment, the first group of subjects, whom LeBlanc describes as "fragiles", regressed more. The strong subjects--termed "les costauds" by the author--who had a more favourable profile on admission did not regress significantly, other than on the asociality scale. Moreover, a comparison of treated and untreated "fragile" subjects (the untreated left the institution prematurely) shows only negligible disparity between the two groups at the time of the follow-up survey. As for the treated and untreated subjects described as "strong", LeBlanc (1983) notes that the "benefits which they derive from treatment seem fairly modest" (p. 300).

It is thus not surprising that the study concludes that the results of treatment are not directly proportional to the effort or quality of such therapy.

Obviously, no definitive conclusions can be drawn from this final section on the costs and effectiveness of social control. At best, it is shown that the costs are high, both economically and socially, and that in some respects the results are disappointing in light of the original goals.

5. CONCLUSION

The portrait of crime drawn here and the analysis of certain concomitant aspects of the phenomenon reveal facts which serve as a basis for reflection on the issue of crime among young people between the ages of 15 and 25.

In our view, youth crime should first be set in a behavioural perspective in terms of activity. More specifically, this means viewing delinquent acts as part of the aggregate of activities which occupy the lives of young people.

The data reported through both police statistics and self-report studies depict the crime curve as featuring two extremes comprised of young people who have never committed acts of delinquency and those who have committed many such acts. While acknowledging that the latter group merits close examination, it should be borne in mind that it is a small group whose members are generally spotted by the judicial system and subject to penal action.

Between these two extremes of the continuum lie the vast majority of youths, comprising those having committed some offences; attending school or out of school; working or unemployed; living at home, alone or with friends; pursuing career goals; searching for their identity; firmly committed to a marginal life; poor, rich, native, male or female.

All of these youths share in their own particular way in the economic and social life of our society. We therefore find it inadvisable to isolate delinquent acts from their other activities. The problem posed by official delinquency doubtlessly results more from the paucity of community resources. In this connection, Hackler and Paranjape (1983), commenting on US findings which confirm that the penal process tightens its grip on youths from disadvantaged classes or ethnic minority backgrounds as they move deeper into the system, state that:

> "One should assume that a similar phenomenon characterizes Canada, not necessarily because of prejudices, although this shouldn't be excluded, but partially because judges and others see fewer constructive options for disadvantaged youth." (p. 458).

The findings described in this report point up the significance of the family setting, of attachment to key individuals and of the school in terms of career plans and training, underscoring as well the importance of belief in conventional values and of social reaction to transgression of those values.

Currently, however, we are witness to a disintegration of the traditional family setting and a redefinition of the parental role. For the disadvantaged classes, these changes are accompanied by profound economic insecurity. Of interest in this respect is a study of marginal adolescents (Gagnon and Langelier-Biron, 1982), which points up different paths based on the socio-economic context. Differential responses to much the same types of behaviour are observed and are often attributable to available resources. For the privileged classes, these resources translate into services; for the disadvantaged, they involve referral to various social agencies.

Looking at the school context, the number of dropouts is rising. Moreover, it is somewhat disquieting to realize that the new technology provides few outlets for individuals who have no training and that even those with training are not guaranteed gainful employment.

In sum, a breach is opening between what are considered conventional values for all classes and available opportunities, which are increasingly diversified. The social fabric cannot easily withstand the stresses and strains to which it is subjected in this highly flexible and changing context.

These observations are not alien to the fact that the clientele of the criminal justice system is a fairly homogeneous one of individuals of low socioeconomic status and low school status. In point of fact, the problems tied to the social and technological changes at work are compounded by an unfavourable socioeconomic environment. Parents and children in disadvantaged circumstances have a hard time solving their problems on their own initiative, for quite simply they lack the necessary means. These problems, whether involving health, employment, discipline or affective relationships, are undermining an already precarious situation. The "losers" on this front turn up as losers in the criminal justice system as well. These observations go back to our earlier remarks on visibility and resources. The agencies of social control clearly focus on certain individuals more than others, two instances being young people and the underprivileged, who are likely to enter the judicial system at an early age. In these cases, aiming the focus on the crime issue obscures a set of other potential problems growing out of a lack of resources.

Young people aged 15-24 or moving towards that period of their lives are now footing the bill for our changing society. Once these youths are numbers in police and court statistics, the outlook becomes bleak. Given that social control is known to carry a high cost, greater attention should be turned to young people to ensure them of better status and provide community support before the formidable problems of delinquency have a chance to develop.

STATISTICAL APPENDIX

TABLE A-1.1: JUVENILES[1] CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1982

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON AND N.W.T.	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Against the person (#)	851 (2.9)	97 (3.3)	30 (3.0)	5 (8.8)	2 (3.0)	- -	50 (5.6)	1 (2.1)	20 (3.9)	1 (3.4)	271 (3.5)	37 (6.5)	252 (3.2)	16 (1.8)	69 (2.0)	9 (1.9)	6 (1.0)	- (-)	33 (2.4)	15 (6.0)	142 (2.7)	11 (1.9)	- (-)	1 (4.4)
Against property (#)	19 564 (67.5)	1 037 (35.1)	776 (78.4)	34 (59.6)	47 (71.2)	- (-)	651 (76.5)	28 (59.6)	408 (80.2)	19 (65.6)	5 201 (65.6)	148 (26.2)	5 744 (75.2)	375 (42.7)	1 927 (59.6)	87 (18.6)	502 (86.8)	50 (98.0)	1 051 (75.3)	84 (33.4)	3 189 (60.9)	208 (36.4)	88 (91.7)	4 (17.4)
Other Criminal Code (#)	4 087 (14.1)	676 (23.0)	152 (15.4)	5 (8.8)	17 (25.8)	- (-)	142 (17.1)	12 (25.5)	49 (9.6)	3 (10.5)	1 179 (14.4)	95 (16.4)	1 099 (14.0)	221 (25.1)	474 (14.7)	181 (38.8)	61 (10.5)	1 (2.0)	143 (10.5)	27 (10.8)	769 (14.7)	133 (25.5)	2 (2.1)	- (-)
Federal statutes (#)	573 (2.0)	244 (8.3)	5 (0.5)	- (-)	- (-)	- (-)	2 (0.2)	2 (4.5)	2 (0.4)	1 (3.4)	181 (2.2)	11 (1.9)	167 (2.1)	80 (9.1)	22 (0.7)	32 (6.9)	6 (1.0)	- (-)	111 (8.0)	85 (33.1)	76 (1.4)	26 (4.5)	3 (3.1)	9 (39.1)
Provincial statutes (#)	2 656 (9.2)	791 (26.9)	28 (2.8)	13 (22.8)	- (-)	- (-)	20 (2.4)	3 (6.4)	23 (4.5)	4 (13.9)	314 (3.8)	199 (35.1)	539 (6.9)	186 (21.2)	728 (22.5)	156 (33.4)	4 (0.7)	- (-)	48 (3.4)	42 (16.7)	949 (18.1)	179 (31.3)	3 (3.1)	9 (39.1)
Municipal bylaws (#)	1 238 (4.3)	99 (3.4)	1 (0.1)	- (-)	- (-)	- (-)	3 (0.4)	1 (2.1)	7 (1.4)	1 (3.4)	1 041 (12.7)	79 (13.9)	47 (0.6)	1 (0.1)	17 (0.5)	2 (0.4)	- (-)	- (-)	8 (0.6)	- (-)	114 (2.2)	15 (2.6)	- (-)	- (-)
TOTAL (#)	28 969 (100.0)	2 944 (100.0)	990 (100.0)	57 (100.0)	66 (100.0)	- (100.0)	828 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	509 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	8 187 (100.0)	567 (100.0)	7 848 (100.0)	879 (100.0)	3 233 (100.0)	467 (100.0)	579 (100.0)	51 (100.0)	1 394 (100.0)	251 (100.0)	5 239 (100.0)	572 (100.0)	96 (100.0)	23 (100.0)

[1] The age limits for juvenile classification in the different provinces are given in Table 1 of the report.

Source: Statistics Canada, Crime and Traffic Enforcement Statistics, Catalogue 85-209, 1962, 1972, 1977, 1980 and 1981.

TABLE A-1.2: JUVENILES CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1972

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON		N.W.T.	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Against the person	1 709	261	42	3	4	2	46	3	33	2	445	29	512	107	319	41	34	13	84	28	186	33	3	-	1	-
(%)	(3.1)	(2.6)	(2.7)	(1.5)	(2.8)	(8.3)	(4.4)	(3.9)	(3.1)	(1.5)	(2.9)	(1.2)	(3.6)	(3.7)	(3.7)	(2.5)	(3.2)	(10.7)	(2.2)	(2.7)	(2.5)	(2.5)	(3.0)	(-)	(1.4)	(-)
Against property	38 052	4 818	1 120	109	98	17	804	63	765	98	10 341	602	10 051	1 590	4 826	752	874	92	3 178	587	5 850	900	82	3	65	5
(%)	(69.2)	(47.5)	(71.4)	(52.8)	(67.6)	(70.8)	(76.9)	(81.8)	(72.1)	(79.4)	(67.0)	(25.5)	(71.4)	(54.8)	(55.0)	(41.4)	(81.0)	(75.4)	(82.6)	(57.0)	(72.5)	(65.7)	(82.8)	(15.0)	(86.5)	(31.3)
Other Criminal Code	6 516	963	218	10	36	1	145	8	169	20	1 987	169	1 500	299	1 189	209	130	7	306	93	825	127	5	-	6	-
(%)	(11.9)	(9.5)	(13.9)	(4.0)	(24.8)	(4.2)	(13.8)	(10.4)	(15.9)	(15.4)	(13.0)	(7.1)	(10.8)	(8.0)	(13.8)	(11.5)	(12.2)	(5.7)	(8.0)	(9.0)	(10.2)	(9.0)	(5.1)	(-)	(8.2)	(-)
Federal statutes	1 510	571	20	1	-	1	13	-	5	1	932	208	382	160	98	17	7	1	88	74	384	107	1	-	-	1
(%)	(2.7)	(5.6)	(1.3)	(0.5)	(-)	(4.2)	(1.2)	(-)	(0.5)	(0.8)	(3.5)	(8.7)	(2.7)	(5.5)	(1.1)	(0.9)	(0.7)	(0.8)	(2.5)	(7.2)	(4.5)	(7.6)	(1.0)	(-)	(-)	(6.2)
Provincial statutes	6 080	3 384	168	25	2	2	38	3	86	9	1 098	1 295	1 562	787	2 355	788	22	9	173	246	848	245	5	17	3	10
(%)	(11.1)	(33.5)	(10.7)	(11.2)	(1.4)	(8.3)	(3.6)	(3.9)	(8.1)	(6.0)	(10.7)	(24.6)	(11.1)	(27.1)	(24.0)	(43.4)	(2.1)	(7.4)	(4.9)	(23.9)	(10.5)	(17.3)	(5.1)	(85.0)	(4.1)	(62.5)
Municipal bylaws	1 107	134	-	-	9	1	1	-	3	-	918	121	82	-	60	9	-	-	18	2	17	1	3	-	-	-
(%)	(2.0)	(1.3)	(-)	(-)	(3.4)	(4.2)	(0.1)	(-)	(0.3)	(-)	(6.0)	(5.1)	(0.6)	(-)	(0.7)	(0.5)	(-)	(-)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(3.0)	(-)	(-)	(-)
TOTAL	54 974	10 141	1 568	206	149	24	1 047	77	1 061	130	15 241	2 384	14 089	2 983	8 847	1 816	1 067	122	3 847	1 030	8 080	1 413	99	20	73	16
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-1.1: [illegible]

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON		N.W.T.	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Against the person	2 187	427	52	6	1	-	58	9	36	5	568	65	663	152	338	66	42	8	145	60	261	63	11	8	8	5
(%)	(3.0)	(3.0)	(2.5)	(2.2)	(0.4)	(-)	(3.1)	(4.2)	(2.6)	(2.6)	(2.6)	(1.4)	(3.9)	(5.0)	(3.1)	(2.4)	(2.7)	(4.0)	(2.5)	(2.6)	(2.6)	(3.5)	(9.2)	(25.0)	(1.6)	(4.2)
Against property	49 688	7 277	1 298	145	181	12	1 345	194	923	105	15 581	1 159	11 613	1 675	5 590	1 138	1 315	132	4 710	1 429	6 844	1 207	92	14	441	53
(%)	(67.5)	(51.9)	(63.1)	(53.8)	(81.2)	(63.2)	(71.0)	(72.6)	(66.8)	(85.5)	(72.4)	(55.9)	(68.3)	(55.6)	(68.2)	(42.0)	(85.0)	(80.5)	(76.1)	(62.4)	(67.7)	(67.6)	(76.6)	(43.8)	(86.2)	(44.9)
Other Criminal Code	8 785	1 189	310	44	30	6	353	30	204	11	2 295	200	2 290	367	1 190	157	160	20	569	172	1 210	160	11	5	54	17
(%)	(11.9)	(8.5)	(15.1)	(16.3)	(13.3)	(31.5)	(18.7)	(14.2)	(14.7)	(5.7)	(10.5)	(6.2)	(13.5)	(12.2)	(12.6)	(9.8)	(10.3)	(12.2)	(9.2)	(7.5)	(12.0)	(9.0)	(9.2)	(15.6)	(6.7)	(14.4)
Federal statutes	3 569	879	77	2	5	-	36	5	67	2	871	129	889	264	619	234	26	2	447	172	931	67	-	-	5	2
(%)	(4.8)	(6.3)	(3.7)	(0.7)	(2.2)	(-)	(1.9)	(2.4)	(4.8)	(1.0)	(4.1)	(6.0)	(5.2)	(8.8)	(5.6)	(8.6)	(1.7)	(1.2)	(7.2)	(7.5)	(9.3)	(5.8)	(-)	(-)	(0.6)	(1.7)
Provincial statutes	8 440	4 141	316	73	6	1	93	13	146	10	1 448	1 599	1 514	549	3 557	1 116	4	2	505	490	1 220	282	6	5	25	41
(%)	(11.5)	(29.5)	(15.4)	(27.0)	(2.7)	(5.5)	(4.9)	(6.1)	(10.5)	(5.2)	(6.7)	(49.8)	(8.9)	(10.2)	(30.3)	(41.2)	(0.3)	(1.2)	(4.9)	(19.7)	(12.1)	(15.8)	(5.0)	(15.6)	(4.9)	(34.8)
Municipal bylaws	929	106	5	-	-	-	7	1	8	-	788	87	47	9	24	1	-	-	10	6	31	6	-	-	-	-
(%)	(1.3)	(0.8)	(0.2)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.6)	(-)	(3.7)	(2.7)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(-)	(-)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
TOTAL	73 998	14 019	2 058	270	225	19	1 892	212	1 384	193	21 513	3 219	16 976	3 010	11 072	2 712	1 549	164	6 203	2 389	10 101	1 785	120	32	511	118
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-1.4: JUVENILES CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1980

OFFENCE	CANADA	NEW-FOUND-LAND	PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND	NOVA SCOTIA	NEW BRUNS-WICK	QUEBEC	ONTARIO	MANITOBA	SASKAT-CHEWAN	ALBERTA	BRITISH COLUM-BIA	YUKON	N.W.T.
Against the person	9 244	155	13	146	100	1 316	3 687	454	252	2 211	860	20	30
(%)	(4.8)	(3.9)	(2.7)	(4.4)	(4.8)	(2.9)	(5.7)	(3.1)	(3.4)	(9.7)	(3.5)	(4.4)	(2.0)
Against property	116 934	2 167	184	1 823	265	31 959	34 561	7 418	5 419	15 950	14 883	321	984
(%)	(60.8)	(54.8)	(38.1)	(55.3)	(60.8)	(70.0)	(53.1)	(50.2)	(72.8)	(70.3)	(59.7)	(70.0)	(65.9)
Other Criminal Code	35 250	957	126	974	347	7 584	13 508	2 031	1 504	3 305	4 504	91	319
(%)	(18.3)	(24.2)	(26.1)	(29.5)	(16.7)	(16.6)	(20.7)	(13.7)	(20.2)	(14.6)	(18.1)	(19.9)	(21.4)
Federal statutes	6 949	73	3	108	219	1 112	3 218	554	108	502	1 025	3	24
(%)	(3.6)	(1.8)	(0.6)	(3.3)	(10.5)	(2.4)	(4.9)	(3.7)	(1.4)	(2.2)	(4.1)	(0.7)	(1.6)
Provincial statutes	21 666	607	152	234	148	2 474	9 537	4 295	130	625	3 307	23	134
(%)	(11.3)	(15.3)	(31.5)	(7.1)	(7.1)	(5.4)	(14.6)	(29.0)	(1.7)	(2.8)	(13.3)	(5.0)	(9.0)
Municipal bylaws	2 420	2	5	12	3	1 230	680	50	38	84	314	-	2
(%)	(1.2)	(0.0)	(1.0)	(0.4)	(0.1)	(2.7)	(1.0)	(0.3)	(0.5)	(0.4)	(1.3)	(-)	(0.1)
TOTAL	192 463	3 961	483	3 297	2 082	45 675	65 191	14 802	7451	22 677	24 893	458	1 493
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-1.5: JUVENILES CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1981

OFFENCE	CANADA	NEW-FOUND-LAND	PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND	NOVA SCOTIA	NEW BRUNS-WICK	QUEBEC	ONTARIO	MANITOBA	SASKAT-CHEWAN	ALBERTA	BRITISH COLUM-BIA	YUKON	N.W.T.
Against the person	7 496	190	22	135	113	1 360	3 766	485	193	387	808	14	23
(%)	(4.0)	(3.8)	(4.7)	(4.2)	(5.9)	(2.8)	(5.7)	(3.1)	(2.8)	(3.2)	(3.2)	(2.5)	(1.6)
Against property	114 653	3 035	295	1 833	1 213	33 119	35 850	8 093	5 117	8 812	15 795	441	1 050
(%)	(61.3)	(60.0)	(62.9)	(57.4)	(63.3)	(68.8)	(53.8)	(52.2)	(74.7)	(73.9)	(61.9)	(79.8)	(72.2)
Other Criminal Code	34 043	1 138	129	982	388	7 455	14 283	2 044	1 316	1 961	4 023	78	246
(%)	(18.2)	(22.5)	(27.5)	(30.7)	(20.3)	(15.5)	(21.4)	(13.2)	(19.2)	(16.4)	(15.8)	(14.1)	(16.9)
Federal statutes	6 034	92	10	78	77	1 035	2 732	591	89	287	1 022	5	16
(%)	(3.2)	(1.8)	(2.1)	(2.4)	(4.0)	(2.1)	(4.1)	(3.8)	(1.3)	(2.4)	(4.0)	(0.9)	(1.1)
Provincial statutes	22.182	590	12	139	115	3 619	9 164	4 267	112	444	3 595	15	110
(%)	(11.8)	(11.6)	(2.6)	(4.3)	(6.0)	(7.5)	(13.8)	(27.5)	(1.6)	(3.7)	(14.1)	(2.7)	(7.6)
Municipal bylaws	2 845	15	1	33	10	1 60'	811	35	27	52	251	-	9
(%)	(1.5)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(1.0)	(0.5)	(3.3)	(1.2)	(0.2)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(1.0)	(-)	(0.6)
TOTAL	187 253	5 060	469	3 200	1 916	48 189	66 606	15 515	6 854	11 943	25 494	553	1 454
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-2.1: ADULTS[1] CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1962

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON AND N.W.T.	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	16 329	788	380	16	67	3	811	25	558	24	2 203	74	6 453	289	748	48	1 598	8	1 598	94	2 193	129	202	11
(%)	(4.9)	(2.9)	(6.2)	(4.4)	(2.5)	(14.3)	(5.1)	(5.6)	(5.8)	(9.1)	(4.9)	(2.8)	(5.3)	(2.8)	(4.2)	(2.4)	(4.2)	(4.9)	(4.2)	(2.7)	(4.1)	(2.4)	(5.1)	(1.4)
Against property	53 203	3 869	1 259	78	150	3	1 862	43	1 477	57	10 441	558	18 817	1 637	3 249	312	5 648	132	5 848	462	6 255	525	349	16
(%)	(16.1)	(14.1)	(20.8)	(21.3)	(5.6)	(14.3)	(11.8)	(9.6)	(15.4)	(21.6)	(23.2)	(20.9)	(15.6)	(15.7)	(18.2)	(15.7)	(15.5)	(80.5)	(15.5)	(13.3)	(11.8)	(9.8)	(8.8)	(2.1)
Other Criminal Code	41 113	4 537	672	49	151	2	1 553	82	1 214	38	6 340	410	15 485	1 767	2 783	417	5 015	20	5 015	880	5 083	499	350	44
(%)	(12.4)	(16.5)	(11.0)	(13.4)	(5.6)	(9.5)	(9.8)	(18.3)	(12.7)	(14.4)	(14.1)	(15.4)	(12.8)	(16.9)	(15.5)	(21.0)	(13.2)	(12.2)	(13.2)	(25.3)	(9.6)	(9.3)	(8.8)	(5.7)
Federal statutes	21 036	1 996	288	7	81	-	429	8	384	22	5 106	200	4 229	288	903	68	2 820	2	2 820	284	4 815	726	721	190
(%)	(6.3)	(7.2)	(4.7)	(1.9)	(3.0)	(-)	(2.7)	(1.8)	(4.0)	(8.3)	(11.4)	(7.5)	(3.5)	(2.8)	(5.0)	(3.4)	(7.5)	(1.2)	(7.5)	(8.2)	(9.1)	(13.5)	(18.1)	(24.4)
Provincial statutes	163 890	13 185	3 419	217	1 176	6	10 763	276	5 542	116	5 152	663	69 295	5 846	7 332	743	21 367	2	21 367	1 519	29 414	2 867	2 326	513
(%)	(49.4)	(47.9)	(56.2)	(59.0)	(43.8)	(28.6)	(68.2)	(61.8)	(57.9)	(43.9)	(11.6)	(24.7)	(57.4)	(56.0)	(40.9)	(37.6)	(56.5)	(1.2)	(56.5)	(43.6)	(55.4)	(53.4)	(58.3)	(65.9)
Municipal bylaws	36 322	3 147	64	-	1 059	7	386	13	401	7	15 679	765	6 537	607	2 899	394	1 188	-	1 188	239	5 293	625	34	4
(%)	(10.9)	(11.4)	(1.1)	(-)	(39.5)	(33.3)	(2.4)	(2.9)	(4.2)	(2.7)	(34.9)	(28.7)	(5.4)	(5.8)	(16.2)	(19.9)	(3.1)	(-)	(3.1)	(6.9)	(10.0)	(11.6)	(0.9)	(0.5)
TOTAL	331 893	27 520	6 082	367	2 684	21	15 804	447	9 576	264	44 917	2 670	120 816	10 434	17 914	1 982	37 836	164	37 836	3 478	53 053	5 371	3 982	778
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

[1] The age limits for adult classification in the different provinces are given in Table 1 of the report.

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-2.2: ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1972

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON		N.W.T.	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	30 680	2 268	715	39	151	6	1 039	73	730	33	4 867	237	12 399	1 023	1 508	101	1 867	204	2 852	228	4 090	293	118	-	344	31
(%)	(6.6)	(4.6)	(6.8)	(4.1)	(3.1)	(5.6)	(4.0)	(7.4)	(4.8)	(4.9)	(7.6)	(5.8)	(6.2)	(4.6)	(7.9)	(4.9)	(5.6)	(5.5)	(5.6)	(4.1)	(10.5)	(4.8)	(12.7)	(-)	(14.8)	(7.1)
Against property	93 799	17 737	1 884	231	361	27	2 563	388	2 300	270	16 326	2 366	37 198	8 279	3 997	773	5 370	959	9 861	1 621	13 273	2 787	246	13	460	43
(%)	(20.2)	(36.1)	(17.9)	(24.4)	(7.5)	(25.0)	(9.9)	(39.4)	(15.0)	(39.8)	(25.5)	(38.2)	(18.7)	(37.1)	(21.0)	(37.6)	(16.2)	(25.1)	(19.4)	(29.4)	(34.0)	(45.9)	(26.4)	(13.5)	(19.9)	(9.8)
Other Criminal Code	63 321	7 286	1 270	103	301	7	2 287	75	1 599	83	10 946	1 315	28 093	3 222	2 736	343	3 710	523	4 129	351	7 979	1 145	212	40	459	79
(%)	(13.6)	(14.8)	(12.1)	(10.8)	(6.2)	(6.5)	(8.8)	(7.6)	(10.3)	(12.2)	(16.5)	(21.2)	(14.1)	(14.4)	(14.4)	(16.6)	(11.2)	(14.1)	(8.1)	(6.3)	(20.4)	(18.8)	(22.7)	(41.7)	(19.9)	(18.1)
Federal statutes	38 465	3 922	595	22	97	3	1 031	49	479	17	6 238	393	16 281	1 762	1 256	126	2 089	196	3 448	329	6 750	1 009	122	12	119	12
(%)	(8.3)	(8.0)	(5.3)	(2.3)	(2.0)	(2.8)	(4.0)	(5.0)	(3.1)	(2.5)	(9.7)	(6.5)	(8.2)	(7.9)	(6.6)	(6.1)	(6.3)	(5.3)	(6.8)	(5.9)	(17.3)	(16.5)	(13.1)	(12.5)	(5.1)	(2.7)
Provincial statutes	203 450	13 424	6 023	551	2 728	44	18 317	393	9 916	274	5 393	430	100 432	7 337	8 518	609	19 515	1 562	28 036	649	9 412	272	225	31	935	272
(%)	(43.7)	(27.3)	(57.3)	(57.9)	(56.6)	(40.7)	(70.6)	(39.9)	(64.7)	(40.3)	(5.5)	(6.9)	(50.5)	(32.9)	(44.6)	(29.9)	(58.7)	(42.0)	(55.1)	(29.8)	(13.9)	(4.5)	(24.1)	(32.3)	(40.3)	(62.3)
Municipal bylaws	35 333	4 528	66	5	1 187	21	701	7	324	2	22 648	1 462	4 589	695	1 043	110	681	296	2 556	1 354	1 528	576	9	-	1	-
(%)	(7.6)	(9.2)	(0.6)	(0.5)	(24.6)	(19.4)	(2.7)	(0.7)	(2.1)	(0.3)	(35.4)	(23.6)	(2.3)	(3.1)	(5.5)	(5.3)	(2.0)	(8.0)	(5.0)	(24.5)	(3.9)	(9.5)	(1.0)	(-)	(0.0)	(-)
TOTAL	465 048	49 165	10 513	951	4 825	108	25 938	985	15 308	679	64 018	6 203	198 992	22 318	19 058	2 062	33 232	3 720	50 882	5 528	39 032	6 078	932	96	2 318	437
(%)	(100.0)	(100.00	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-2.9: ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1977

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON		N.W.T.	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	36 112	3 504	831	74	127	8	1 215	99	973	95	5 259	324	14 630	1 480	1 708	247	2 285	302	4 083	430	4 394	373	142	18	466	54
(%)	(5.9)	(4.7)	(8.2)	(7.5)	(2.2)	(4.3)	(3.2)	(4.7)	(5.4)	(6.3)	(7.3)	(5.2)	(5.9)	(4.6)	(6.5)	(6.8)	(4.5)	(5.2)	(4.3)	(5.1)	(9.6)	(4.9)	(12.3)	(12.2)	(11.2)	(6.4)
Against property	128 932	28 880	2 518	405	557	66	4 295	754	3 394	646	24 427	4 921	48 195	12 819	5 173	1 245	7 822	1 594	16 536	2 666	14 850	3 613	286	40	879	111
(%)	(21.0)	(39.1)	(24.8)	(40.8)	(9.5)	(35.5)	(11.4)	(35.8)	(18.8)	(42.8)	(34.0)	(48.0)	(19.6)	(39.6)	(19.6)	(34.1)	(15.3)	(27.4)	(17.5)	(31.8)	(32.5)	(47.9)	(24.8)	(27.3)	(21.1)	(13.1)
Other Criminal Code	100 633	11 724	2 130	163	491	19	3 473	202	2 324	132	12 360	1 444	48 550	6 125	4 363	483	5 442	660	10 255	914	9 972	1 329	326	29	947	224
(%)	(16.4)	(15.9)	(21.0)	(16.4)	(8.3)	(10.2)	(9.2)	(9.6)	(12.9)	(8.7)	(17.2)	(14.1)	(19.7)	(18.9)	(16.5)	(13.3)	(10.6)	(11.5)	(10.9)	(10.9)	(21.9)	(17.6)	(28.2)	(19.7)	(22.7)	(26.5)
Federal statutes	76 146	7 851	1 491	50	268	10	2 902	131	1 551	109	10 617	1 057	28 825	3 192	3 215	392	3 709	401	13 991	1 033	9 144	1 430	206	21	227	25
(%)	(12.4)	(10.6)	(14.7)	(5.0)	(4.6)	(5.4)	(7.7)	(6.2)	(8.6)	(7.2)	(14.8)	(10.3)	(11.7)	(9.8)	(12.2)	(10.8)	(7.2)	(6.9)	(14.8	(12.3)	(20.1)	(18.9)	(17.8)	(14.3)	(5.4)	(3.0)
Provincial statutes	247 778	18 22	2 842	291	4 436	83	25 047	816	9 121	347	4 954	990	100 916	7 500	11 468	1 118	31 531	2 723	49 027	3 222	6 694	685	192	39	1 550	398
(%)	(40.5)	(24.7)	(28.0)	(29.3)	(75.2)	(44.6)	(66.8)	(38.8)	(50.7)	(25.0)	(6.9)	(9.7)	(41.1)	(23.1)	(43.3)	(30.7)	(61.6)	(46.8)	(51.9)	(38.4)	(14.7)	(9.1)	(16.6)	(26.5)	(37.1)	(47.0)
Municipal bylaws	23 000	3 689	332	10	9	-	641	104	654	181	14 324	1 521	4 899	1 296	489	157	400	140	608	129	535	117	3	-	106	34
(%)	(3.8)	(5.0)	(3.3)	(1.0)	(0.2)	(-)	(1.7)	(4.9)	(3.6)	(12.0)	(19.8)	(14.7)	(2.0)	(4.0)	(1.9)	(4.3)	(0.8)	(2.4)	(0.6)	(1.5)	(1.2)	(1.6)	(0.3)	(-)	(2.5)	(4.0)
TOTAL	612 601	73 860	10 144	993	5 888	186	37 573	2 106	18 017	510	71 940	10 257	246 015	32 412	26 416	3 642	51 189	5 820	94 500	8 394	45 589	7 547	1 155	147	4 175	846
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.00	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-2.4 ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1980

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON		N.W.T.	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	41 007	4 387	859	69	115	5	1 332	113	1 163	114	6 667	431	16 835	2 111	1 448	193	2 118	307	4 599	482	5 572	509	121	17	378	36
(%)	(5.7)	(4.5)	(5.9)	(4.6)	(2.2)	(1.9)	(3.0)	(5.7)	(5.2)	(6.9)	(7.7)	(5.5)	(5.5)	(4.8)	(5.9)	(4.9)	(4.0)	(4.5)	(4.0)	(3.7)	(10.4)	(6.1)	(10.2)	(8.9)	(9.0)	(5.7)
Against property	163 262	39 191	3 089	746	700	96	5 599	1 074	4 096	752	3 4076	7 077	60 507	16 288	5 669	1 533	8 342	2 031	21 355	4 821	18 419	4 627	429	59	981	89
(%)	(22.5)	(40.6)	(21.4)	(49.5)	(13.4)	(36.5)	(12.6)	(35.6)	(18.4)	(45.5)	(40.7)	(54.5)	(19.9)	(37.0)	(23.0)	(38.6)	(15.8)	(29.6)	(18.7)	(36.9)	(34.5)	(55.5)	(36.0)	(31.1)	(23.4)	(13.7)
Other Criminal Code	114 590	12 830	2 213	183	537	27	4 554	305	3 203	186	15 358	1 439	51 777	6 626	4 297	656	6 252	849	12 782	1 253	12 128	1 136	287	33	1 202	137
(%)	(15.8)	(13.3)	(15.3)	(12.2)	(10.3)	(10.3)	(10.2)	(10.1)	(14.4)	(11.3)	(18.4)	(11.0)	(17.0)	(15.1)	(17.4)	(16.5)	(11.8)	(12.4)	(11.2)	(9.6)	(22.7)	(13.6)	(24.1)	(17.4)	(28.7)	(21.6)
Federal statutes	68 020	8 186	1 506	59	303	14	3 268	226	1 648	129	8 009	1 090	25 757	3 377	2 716	374	3 316	382	13 249	1 478	7 936	1 016	87	9	235	32
(%)	(9.4)	(8.5)	(10.4)	(3.9)	(5.8)	(5.3)	(7.3)	(7.5)	(7.4)	(7.8)	(9.6)	(8.4)	(8.5)	(7.7)	(11.0)	(9.4)	(6.3)	(5.6)	(11.6)	(11.3)	(14.9)	(12.1)	(7.3)	(4.7)	(5.6)	(5.0)
Provincial statutes	314 843	27 798	6 671	424	3 545	118	29 185	1 223	11 490	443	5 131	948	144.091	14 130	10 444	1 193	32 459	3 174	61 226	4 739	8 976	1 006	267	71	1 358	329
(%)	(43.3)	(28.8)	(46.2)	(28.2)	(68.1)	(44.9)	(65.5)	(40.5)	(51.5)	(26.8)	(6.1)	(7.3)	(47.2)	(32.1)	(42.3)	(30.0)	(61.2)	(46.3)	(53.8)	(36.4)	(16.8)	(12.0)	(22.3)	(37.4)	(32.4)	(51.8)
Municipal bylaws	23 634	4 122	109	24	10	3	612	79	693	28	14 623	2 040	5 752	1 449	106	26	471	107	854	276	367	75	1	1	36	14
(%)	(3.3)	(4.5)	(0.8)	(1.6)	(0.2)	(1.1)	(1.4)	(2.6)	(3.1)	(1.7)	(17.5)	(15.7)	(1.9)	(3.3)	(0.4)	(0.7)	(0.9)	(1.6)	(0.7)	(2.1)	(0.7)	(0.9)	(0.1)	(0.5)	(0.9)	(2.2)
TOTAL	725 356	96 514	14 447	1 505	5 210	263	44 550	5 020	22 283	1 652	83 664	13 025	304 719	43 981	24 680	3 975	52 958	6 850	114 065	13 049	53 398	8 369	1 192	190	4 190	635
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-2.5: ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1981

OFFENCE	CANADA		NEWFOUNDLAND		PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		NOVA SCOTIA		NEW BRUNSWICK		QUEBEC		ONTARIO		MANITOBA		SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA		BRITISH COLUMBIA		YUKON		N.W.T.	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	41 942	4 594	936	84	162	10	1 290	97	1 190	110	7 296	445	16 721	2 196	1 534	247	2 071	311	4 746	556	5 472	472	132	18	392	48
(%)	(5.5)	(4.5)	(5.8)	(4.9)	(3.1)	(3.5)	(2.9)	(3.1)	(5.7)	(6.6)	(8.2)	(3.5)	(5.1)	(4.8)	(5.8)	(5.2)	(3.8)	(4.4)	(4.0)	(4.0)	(9.8)	(5.5)	(7.3)	(8.2)	(8.6)	(7.6)
Against property	175 675	41 938	3 988	845	808	119	6 025	1 146	4 380	689	36 186	7 249	61 828	17 518	6 346	1 821	9 688	2 172	24 193	5 249	20 446	4 944	588	59	1 199	127
(%)	(23.0)	(41.4)	(24.8)	(49.4)	(15.4)	(41.8)	(13.4)	(37.0)	(21.1)	(41.5)	(40.6)	(54.1)	(18.9)	(38.2)	(24.2)	(38.2)	(17.8)	(30.6)	(20.2)	(37.7)	(36.7)	(57.8)	(32.3)	(26.9)	(26.2)	(20.1)
Other Criminal Code	117 103	13 271	2 776	223	651	34	4 535	299	3 146	203	16 511	1 496	50 621	6 581	4 693	743	7 154	976	13 479	1 363	12 106	1 180	363	47	1 058	126
(%)	(15.3)	(13.1)	(17.3)	(13.0)	(12.4)	(11.9)	(10.1)	(9.6)	(15.2)	(12.2)	(18.6)	(11.2)	(15.5)	(14.3)	(17.9)	(15.6)	(13.2)	(13.8)	(11.3)	(9.8)	(21.7)	(13.8)	(20.0)	(21.5)	(23.2)	(19.9)
Federal statutes	68 501	8 033	1 567	80	276	12	2 945	194	1 539	115	8 607	1 072	25 530	3 393	2 808	458	3 331	387	12 903	1 398	8 540	882	134	13	318	29
(%)	(9.0)	(7.9)	(9.8)	(4.7)	(5.3)	(4.2)	(6.6)	(6.3)	(7.4)	(6.9)	(9.7)	(8.0)	(7.8)	(7.4)	(10.7)	(9.6)	(6.1)	(5.5)	(10.8)	(10.0)	(15.3)	(10.3)	(7.4)	(5.9)	(7.0)	(4.6)
Provincial statutes	334 741	28 508	6 675	470	3 345	103	29 536	1 277	10 087	519	3 615	610	165 406	14 674	10 678	1 442	31 621	3 067	63 180	4 974	8 725	1 003	341	79	1 532	291
(%)	(43.6)	(28.2)	(41.5)	(27.4)	(63.5)	(36.1)	(66.0)	(41.2)	(48.7)	(31.1)	(4.1)	(4.5)	(50.6)	(31.9)	(40.6)	(30.3)	(58.1)	(43.1)	(52.8)	(35.8)	(15.7)	(11.7)	(18.7)	(36.1)	(33.6)	(45.9)
Municipal bylaws	27 163	4 949	126	11	14	7	427	87	404	28	16 683	2 537	6 890	1 578	210	51	520	182	1 131	378	433	75	259	3	66	12
(%)	(3.6)	(4.9)	(0.8)	(0.6)	(0.3)	(2.5)	(1.0)	(2.8)	(1.9)	(1.7)	(18.8)	(18.9)	(2.1)	(3.4)	(0.8)	(1.1)	(1.0)	(2.6)	(0.9)	(2.7)	(0.8)	(0.9)	(14.3)	(1.4)	(1.4)	(1.9)
TOTAL	765 125	101 293	16 068	1 713	5 256	285	44 758	3 100	20 746	1 663	88 898	13 409	326 996	45 940	26 269	4 762	54 395	7 095	119 632	13 918	55 722	8 556	1 817	219	4 568	633
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-1.1.

TABLE A-3: PERCENTAGE RATIOS OF FEMALE JUVENILES AND ADULTS CHARGED TO TOTAL JUVENILES AND ADULTS CHARGED, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1962, 1972, 1977 1980 AND 1981

PROVINCE	1962		1972		1977		1980	1981
	JUVENILES	ADULTS	JUVENILES	ADULTS	JUVENILES	ADULTS	ADULTS	ADULTS
CANADA	10.1	8.3	18.4	10.6	19.1	12.1	13.3[3]	13.2
NEWFOUNDLAND	5.7	6.0	13.1	9.1	13.1	9.8	10.4	10.7
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND	0.0[1]	7.8[1]	16.6[1]	2.2	8.5[1]	3.2	5.1	5.4
NOVA SCOTIA	5.7	2.8	7.4	3.8	11.2	5.6	6.8	6.9
NEW BRUNSWICK	5.5	2.8	12.2	4.4	14.0	8.4	7.4	8.0
QUEBEC	6.4	5.9	15.6	9.7	14.9	14.3	15.6	15.1
ONTARIO	11.2	8.6	20.6	11.2	17.7	13.2	14.4	14.1
MANITOBA	14.4	11.1	21.0	10.8	24.5	13.8	16.1	18.1
SASKATCHEWAN	8.8	8.9	11.4	11.2	10.6	11.4	12.9	13.0
ALBERTA	18.0[2]	9.2	26.8[2]	10.9	26.9[2]	8.9	11.4	11.6
BRITISH COLUMBIA	10.9	10.1	17.5	15.6	17.7	16.6	15.7	15.4
YUKON AND N.W.T.	24.0[1]	19.5	20.9	16.4	23.8	18.6	15.3	13.3

[1] Negligible figures (less than 100 for girls).

[2] The age limit for juveniles in Alberta is 16 years for boys and 18 years for girls. This explains the higher ratios recorded in the province.

[3] There is no gender-based distinction for juveniles for these years.

Source: See table A-1.1.

TABLE A-4: NUMBER OF PERSONS AGED 15-19 AND 20-24 IN 1977 PER 100 POPULATION IN 1962, BY SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES (TOTAL POPULATION)

PROVINCE	15 to 19 years		20 to 24 years	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
CANADA	157	156	182	179
NEWFOUNDLAND	144	138	169	169
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND	152	160	159	166
NOVA SCOTIA	130	131	152	156
NEW BRUNSWICK	134	134	172	169
QUEBEC	137	134	162	156
ONTARIO	177	175	196	194
MANITOBA	136	137	159	161
SASKATCHEWAN	130	132	153	152
ALBERTA	190	183	219	208
BRITISH COLUMBIA	199	202	225	230
YUKON AND N.W.T.	243	246	179	227

Source: Statistics Canada, Population 1921-1966, Revised Annual Estimates of Population by Sex and Age Group, Canada and Provinces, Catalogue 91-511.

Statistics Canada, Estimates of Population by Sex and Age, Canada and Provinces, Catalogue 91-202, 1977.

TABLE A-5.1: JUVENILES CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1982

OFFENCE	MONTREAL		TORONTO		VANCOUVER		WINNIPEG		OTTAWA		HAMILTON		EDMONTON		CALGARY		QUEBEC		WINDSOR		LONDON		HALIFAX	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Against the person	110	19	126	13	49	5	42	10	25	-	3	-	19	7	3	-	31	5	2	-	1	-	12	-
(%)	(5.4)	(9.8)	(4.8)	(3.0)	(2.6)	(2.5)	(2.6)	(3.5)	(4.4)	(-)	(0.7)	(-)	(2.9)	(4.5)	(2.0)	(-)	(6.5)	(11.1)	(3.4)	(-)	(0.6)	(-)	(4.4)	(-)
Against property	1 910	52	1 912	188	1 270	83	1 157	55	311	14	322	11	545	51	133	16	358	20	42	1	135	35	222	9
(%)	(59.4)	(26.8)	(72.1)	(43.5)	(66.7)	(37.4)	(70.1)	(18.1)	(59.0)	(63.7)	(78.4)	(78.6)	(84.2)	(31.3)	(89.3)	(76.1)	(72.1)	(44.5)	(71.1)	(33.3)	(80.3)	(87.5)	(80.7)	(64.3)
Other Criminal Code	605	50	539	193	240	87	313	169	35	5	28	-	73	19	8	1	45	11	7	-	25	-	36	4
(%)	(18.8)	(25.8)	(20.3)	(44.7)	(12.6)	(39.1)	(19.0)	(55.5)	(6.7)	(22.7)	(6.8)	(-)	(11.5)	(11.7)	(5.4)	(4.8)	(9.1)	(24.4)	(11.9)	(-)	(14.9)	(-)	(13.1)	(28.6)
Federal statutes	67	9	7	14	8	5	11	24	-	-	45	5	1	68	-	5	-	-	-	1	4	5	-	-
(%)	(2.1)	(4.6)	(0.3)	(3.2)	(0.4)	(2.5)	(0.7)	(7.9)	(-)	(-)	(10.9)	(21.4)	(0.2)	(41.7)	(-)	(14.5)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(33.3)	(2.4)	(12.5)	(-)	(-)
Provincial statutes	26	13	49	24	-	-	108	44	22	2	9	-	7	18	3	1	2	-	8	1	3	-	5	-
(%)	(0.8)	(6.7)	(1.8)	(5.6)	(-)	(-)	(6.6)	(14.5)	(4.7)	(9.1)	(2.2)	(-)	(1.1)	(11.0)	(2.0)	(4.8)	(0.4)	(-)	(15.6)	(33.3)	(1.8)	(-)	(1.8)	(-)
Municipal bylaws	500	51	19	-	338	42	16	2	135	1	4	-	2	-	2	-	60	3	-	-	-	-	-	1
(%)	(15.5)	(26.3)	(0.7)	(-)	(17.7)	(18.9)	(1.0)	(0.7)	(25.7)	(4.5)	(1.0)	(-)	(0.3)	(-)	(1.3)	(-)	(12.1)	(20.0)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(7.1)
TOTAL	3 218	194	2 652	432	1 905	222	1 647	504	526	22	411	14	649	163	149	21	496	45	59	3	168	40	275	14
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: Statistics Canada, Crime and Traffic Enforcement Statistics, Catalogue 85-205, 1977, 1980 and 1981.

TABLE A-5.2: JUVENILES CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1977

OFFENCE	MONTREAL		TORONTO		VANCOUVER		WINNIPEG		OTTAWA		HAMILTON		EDMONTON		CALGARY		QUEBEC		WINDSOR		LONDON		HALIFAX	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Against the person	157	17	245	56	87	25	181	39	46	11	44	11	19	16	63	19	36	1	18	4	31	7	19	-
(%)	(2.7)	(1.9)	(5.5)	(5.5)	(3.0)	(4.5)	(3.6)	(2.0)	(4.0)	(8.7)	(6.1)	(5.0)	(2.1)	(3.5)	(3.2)	(2.0)	(3.4)	(1.0)	(5.3)	(14.8)	(4.9)	(5.6)	(4.3)	(-)
Against property	4 446	392	3 108	563	2 069	433	3 118	899	821	86	507	86	697	238	1 634	683	811	89	247	15	488	99	349	56
(%)	(75.0)	(44.9)	(69.4)	(54.8)	(70.8)	(78.8)	(61.9)	(46.8)	(70.9)	(67.7)	(69.8)	(39.4)	(78.6)	(51.3)	(82.6)	(72.9)	(76.8)	(84.7)	(72.6)	(55.6)	(77.4)	(78.5)	(79.3)	(91.8)
Other Criminal Code	496	80	644	177	306	21	668	95	110	8	87	20	58	31	149	43	55	-	65	3	76	3	69	3
(%)	(8.4)	(9.2)	(14.4)	(17.2)	(10.5)	(3.8)	(13.3)	(4.9)	(9.5)	(6.3)	(12.0)	(9.2)	(6.5)	(6.7)	(7.5)	(4.6)	(5.2)	(-)	(19.1)	(11.1)	(12.0)	(2.4)	(15.7)	(8.2)
Federal statutes	159	44	189	122	124	13	376	196	49	6	22	11	44	48	67	62	50	6	3	4	21	10	3	-
(%)	(2.7)	(5.0)	(4.2)	(11.9)	(4.2)	(2.4)	(7.5)	(10.2)	(4.2)	(4.7)	(3.0)	(5.0)	(5.0)	(10.4)	(3.4)	(6.6)	(4.7)	(5.7)	(0.9)	(14.8)	(3.3)	(7.9)	(0.7)	(-)
Provincial statutes	304	292	280	109	323	54	681	691	78	8	66	90	62	130	55	129	-	-	7	1	12	7	-	-
(%)	(5.1)	(33.4)	(6.3)	(10.6)	(11.1)	(9.8)	(13.5)	(36.0)	(6.7)	(6.3)	(9.1)	(41.4)	(7.0)	(28.1)	(2.7)	(13.8)	(-)	(-)	(2.1)	(3.7)	(1.9)	(5.6)	(-)	(-)
Municipal bylaws	362	49	8	-	13	4	11	1	54	8	-	-	7	-	11	1	109	9	-	-	3	-	-	-
(%)	(6.1)	(5.6)	(0.2)	(-)	(0.4)	(0.7)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(4.7)	(6.3)	(-)	(-)	(0.8)	(-)	(0.6)	(0.1)	(9.9)	(8.6)	(-)	(-)	(0.5)	(-)	(-)	(-)
TOTAL	5 924	874	4 474	1 027	2 922	550	5 035	1 921	1 158	127	726	218	887	463	1 977	957	1 057	105	340	27	631	126	440	61
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-5.3: JUVENILES CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE, SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1980

OFFENCE	MONTREAL	TORONTO	VANCOUVER	WINNIPEG	OTTAWA	HAMILTON	EDMONTON	CALGARY	QUEBEC	WINDSOR	LONDON	HALIFAX
Against the person	588	1 042	195	208	206	317	118	1 892	95	85	151	22
(%)	(5.6)	(4.5)	(3.7)	(3.5)	(6.0)	(7.5)	(5.5)	(12.9)	(3.1)	(9.0)	(3.2)	(3.2)
Against property	7 234	9 613	3 418	3 796	2 366	2 730	1 592	10 628	2 108	651	1 296	488
(%)	(69.0)	(41.3)	(65.5)	(64.3)	(68.7)	(64.6)	(74.4)	(72.2)	(69.7)	(68.5)	(69.5)	(71.9)
Other Criminal Code	1 708	5 056	659	602	603	661	282	1 736	289	197	329	150
(%)	(16.3)	(21.7)	(12.6)	(10.2)	(17.5)	(15.6)	(13.2)	(11.8)	(9.5)	(20.8)	(17.6)	(22.1)
Federal statutes	285	990	207	333	82	147	76	225	145	11	64	10
(%)	(2.7)	(4.2)	(4.0)	(5.6)	(2.4)	(3.5)	(3.5)	(1.5)	(4.8)	(1.2)	(3.4)	(1.5)
Provincial statutes	280	6 220	656	950	135	347	69	186	3	5	23	8
(%)	(2.7)	(26.7)	(12.6)	(16.1)	(3.9)	(8.2)	(3.2)	(1.3)	(0.1)	(0.5)	(1.2)	(1.2)
Municipal bylaws	389	379	82	16	53	25	5	51	387	-	4	1
(%)	(3.7)	(1.6)	(1.6)	(0.3)	(1.5)	(0.6)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(12.8)	(-)	(0.2)	(0.1)
TOTAL	10 484	23 300	5 217	5 905	3 445	4 227	2 142	14 718	3 027	949	1 867	679
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-5.4: JUVENILES CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE, SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1981

INFRACTIONS	MONTREAL	TORONTO	VANCOUVER	WINNIPEG	OTTAWA	HAMILTON	EDMONTON	CALGARY	QUEBEC	WINDSOR	LONDON	HALIFAX
Against the person	650	1 070	159	226	225	284	92	88	69	100	146	35
(%)	(6.3)	(4.5)	(3.5)	(3.4)	(6.5)	(7.2)	(4.2)	(2.3)	(2.2)	(9.5)	(7.4)	(4.9)
Against property	7 221	10 164	2 865	4 120	2 260	2 649	1 686	3 301	1 940	754	1 368	480
(%)	(69.5)	(42.7)	(63.8)	(61.8)	(65.1)	(67.3)	(77.6)	(84.4)	(63.3)	(71.4)	(69.2)	(67.3)
Other Criminal Code	1 738	5 701	593	761	632	534	309	411	317	176	337	194
(%)	(16.7)	(23.9)	(13.2)	(11.4)	(18.2)	(13.6)	(14.2)	(10.5)	(10.3)	(16.7)	(17.1)	(27.2)
Federal statutes	183	739	218	374	96	112	48	89	86	13	81	4
(%)	(1.8)	(3.1)	(4.8)	(5.6)	(2.8)	(2.8)	(2.2)	(2.3)	(2.8)	(1.2)	(4.1)	(0.6)
Provincial statutes	197	5 684	582	1 167	180	344	38	13	1	13	38	-
(%)	(1.9)	(23.9)	(12.9)	(17.5)	(5.2)	(8.7)	(1.7)	(0.3)	(0.0)	(1.2)	(1.9)	(-)
Municipal bylaws	395	447	79	21	76	16	3	7	655	-	6	-
(%)	(3.8)	(1.9)	(1.8)	(0.3)	(2.2)	(0.4)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(21.4)	(-)	(0.3)	(-)
TOTAL	10 384	23 805	4 496	6 669	3 469	3 939	2 176	3 909	3 068	1 056	1 976	713
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-6.1: ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, SELECTED METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1982

OFFENCE	MONTREAL		TORONTO		VANCOUVER		WINNIPEG		OTTAWA		HAMILTON		EDMONTON		CALGARY		QUEBEC		WINDSOR		LONDON		HALIFAX	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	888	35	1 740	83	956	59	317	24	270	5	327	15	372	25	334	17	118	18	229	8	155	6	117	3
(%)	(5.0)	(3.7)	(4.6)	(1.7)	(4.6)	(2.5)	(3.9)	(2.1)	(4.0)	(0.8)	(5.2)	(2.9)	(3.6)	(1.5)	(5.2)	(1.9)	(8.2)	(7.9)	(17.2)	(6.8)	(3.0)	(1.9)	(2.5)	(1.0)
Against property	3 113	279	4 932	678	2 419	337	1 870	268	1 029	145	1 264	182	1 439	235	1 458	179	629	117	458	22	382	51	513	25
(%)	(17.6)	(29.9)	(13.1)	(14.0)	(11.8)	(14.3)	(22.8)	(25.1)	(15.4)	(22.9)	(20.1)	(36.6)	(14.0)	(15.0)	(22.6)	(20.1)	(44.0)	(51.3)	(34.6)	(18.6)	(7.4)	(16.2)	(10.8)	(8.7)
Other Criminal Code	2 866	146	4 956	1 056	1 956	239	1 650	242	963	117	614	49	1 558	412	1 215	360	202	54	249	25	202	10	186	65
(%)	(16.2)	(15.6)	(13.2)	(21.8)	(9.5)	(10.2)	(20.1)	(20.9)	(14.4)	(18.5)	(9.8)	(9.3)	(15.1)	(25.0)	(18.9)	(40.3)	(14.1)	(25.7)	(18.8)	(21.2)	(3.9)	(3.2)	(3.5)	(22.7)
Federal statutes	913	14	213	8	452	15	153	5	54	-	23	5	189	5	87	5	-	-	4	-	46	1	-	-
(%)	(5.2)	(1.5)	(0.6)	(0.2)	(2.2)	(0.6)	(1.9)	(0.4)	(0.8)	(-)	(0.4)	(1.0)	(1.8)	(0.5)	(1.4)	(0.6)	(-)	(-)	(0.3)	(-)	(0.9)	(0.3)	(-)	(-)
Provincial statutes	590	25	25 660	3 009	-	-	1 734	262	1 983	128	5 731	246	6 424	935	2 944	251	4	-	313	51	4 369	241	3 910	192
(%)	(3.5)	(2.7)	(68.5)	(62.5)	(-)	(-)	(21.2)	(22.6)	(29.7)	(20.2)	(59.4)	(46.7)	(62.5)	(56.8)	(45.7)	(25.9)	(0.1)	(-)	(23.7)	(43.2)	(84.2)	(76.8)	(82.4)	(67.0)
Municipal bylaws	9 357	435	16	1	14 826	1 704	2 466	358	2 378	238	318	29	315	56	402	100	478	39	71	12	55	5	36	1
(%)	(52.7)	(46.6)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(71.9)	(72.4)	(30.1)	(30.9)	(35.7)	(37.6)	(5.1)	(5.5)	(5.0)	(5.4)	(6.2)	(11.2)	(55.4)	(17.1)	(5.4)	(10.2)	(0.6)	(1.6)	(0.8)	(0.3)
TOTAL	17 727	934	37 517	4 835	20 609	2 354	8 190	1 159	6 673	633	8 277	526	10 295	1 648	6 440	892	1 431	228	1 323	118	5 187	314	4 742	288
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-6.2: ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1977

OFFENCE	MONTREAL		TORONTO		VANCOUVER		WINNIPEG		OTTAWA		HAMILTON		EDMONTON		CALGARY		QUEBEC		WINDSOR		LONDON		HALIFAX	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	1 648	101	5 324	682	1 714	150	597	79	539	43	768	65	963	120	957	68	366	21	664	100	426	32	235	15
(%)	(7.1)	(2.3)	(8.0)	(5.8)	(12.1)	(4.6)	(9.0)	(5.0)	(5.3)	(1.9)	(6.9)	(3.9)	(6.5)	(5.7)	(4.8)	(2.8)	(6.6)	(1.9)	(14.6)	(15.5)	(6.4)	(5.4)	(2.4)	(1.7)
Against property	7 330	2 042	12 617	4 405	5 687	1 673	2 952	989	3 177	1 027	2 332	825	4 332	1 010	4 942	947	1 900	749	1 252	268	1 801	534	1 225	336
(%)	(31.7)	(47.2)	(18.9)	(37.5)	(40.0)	(51.7)	(44.4)	(62.3)	(31.4)	(45.6)	(21.0)	(50.1)	(29.2)	(48.3)	(25.0)	(38.7)	(34.1)	(66.2)	(27.6)	(41.5)	(26.9)	(97.0)	(12.3)	(37.2)
Other Criminal Code	6 418	1 038	18 662	3 583	3 638	855	1 181	151	1 730	253	2 879	281	2 020	327	1 509	191	385	70	1 576	171	1 454	128	770	90
(%)	(27.7)	(24.0)	(28.0)	(30.3)	(29.5)	(29.7)	(17.8)	(9.5)	(17.1)	(11.2)	(26.0)	(17.1)	(13.6)	(15.6)	(7.6)	(7.8)	(6.9)	(6.2)	(34.5)	(26.5)	(21.7)	(15.7)	(7.7)	(10.0)
Federal statutes	1 114	107	5 924	978	1 968	388	818	114	332	36	1 781	222	2 728	229	3 295	276	151	24	193	16	237	10	355	31
(%)	(4.8)	(2.5)	(8.9)	(8.3)	(13.9)	(12.0)	(12.3)	(7.2)	(3.3)	(1.6)	(16.1)	(13.5)	(18.4)	(10.9)	(16.7)	(11.5)	(2.7)	(2.1)	(3.4)	(2.5)	(3.5)	(1.1)	(3.5)	(3.4)
Provincial statutes	2 180	397	23 258	2 062	952	120	1 034	232	2 709	240	3 004	249	4 646	381	9 002	958	1	-	805	60	2 757	228	7 173	339
(%)	(9.4)	(9.2)	(34.9)	(17.5)	(6.7)	(3.7)	(15.5)	(14.6)	(26.7)	(10.7)	(27.1)	(15.1)	(31.4)	(18.2)	(45.7)	(39.2)	(0.0)	(-)	(17.7)	(9.3)	(41.5)	(24.3)	(71.9)	(37.6)
Municipal bylaws	4 461	642	860	97	290	75	68	22	1 635	652	321	5	140	27	43	5	2 761	267	110	30	14	5	217	91
(%)	(19.3)	(14.8)	(1.3)	(0.8)	(1.8)	(2.3)	(1.0)	(1.4)	(16.2)	(29.0)	(2.9)	(0.3)	(0.9)	(1.3)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(49.7)	(25.6)	(2.4)	(4.7)	(0.2)	(0.5)	(2.2)	(10.1)
TOTAL	23 151	4 327	66 645	11 807	14 209	3 239	6 650	1 587	10 122	2 251	11 085	1 647	14 829	2 094	19 748	2 445	5 564	1 131	4 560	645	6 689	937	9 975	902
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-6.5: ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1982

OFFENCE	MONTREAL		TORONTO		VANCOUVER		WINNIPEG		OTTAWA		HAMILTON		EDMONTON		CALGARY		QUEBEC		WINDSOR		LONDON		HALIFAX	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	2 152	187	6 348	932	2 109	201	524	63	608	52	788	100	1 199	135	765	75	283	20	798	106	510	70	256	28
(%)	(9.2)	(3.7)	(9.7)	(6.6)	(12.7)	(6.5)	(7.5)	(3.7)	(5.4)	(2.2)	(4.5)	(3.6)	(6.0)	(4.0)	(6.5)	(3.0)	(4.4)	(1.8)	(11.5)	(9.3)	(4.8)	(4.6)	(2.9)	(2.9)
Against property	8 340	2 591	15 313	5 006	6 443	1 948	3 316	1 105	4 086	1 189	2 898	1 063	5 390	1 679	6 974	1 998	2 102	716	2 099	561	2 036	743	1 642	476
(%)	(35.8)	(51.3)	(23.4)	(35.2)	(38.7)	(61.1)	(47.5)	(64.4)	(36.2)	(49.9)	(16.5)	(38.1)	(26.8)	(49.5)	(59.2)	(79.6)	(32.8)	(65.3)	(29.5)	(49.4)	(19.0)	(48.5)	(18.9)	(48.1)
Other Criminal Code	5 273	809	14 033	3116	4 191	495	1 743	265	1 737	230	4 019	441	3 179	393	1 852	196	397	46	2 058	184	1 775	180	971	126
(%)	(22.5)	(16.0)	(21.5)	(22.0)	(25.2)	(15.5)	(24.9)	(15.5)	(15.4)	(9.7)	(22.9)	(15.8)	(15.6)	(11.6)	(15.6)	(7.8)	(6.2)	(4.2)	(29.2)	(16.2)	(16.6)	(11.7)	(11.2)	(12.7)
Federal statutes	1 086	134	5 149	769	2 572	412	631	98	420	48	3 080	419	3 448	475	1 891	185	298	21	168	18	624	49	297	20
(%)	(4.6)	(2.7)	(7.9)	(5.4)	(15.5)	(12.9)	(9.0)	(5.7)	(3.7)	(2.0)	(17.6)	(15.0)	(17.1)	(14.0)	(16.1)	(7.4)	(4.0)	(1.9)	(2.4)	(1.6)	(5.8)	(2.9)	(3.4)	(2.0)
Provincial statutes	2 134	352	23 101	4 280	1 252	119	745	179	3 022	327	6 597	730	6 709	665	151	46	-	-	1 540	156	5 666	473	5 316	295
(%)	(9.1)	(7.0)	(35.4)	(30.2)	(7.5)	(3.7)	(10.7)	(10.4)	(26.8)	(13.7)	(37.6)	(26.2)	(33.4)	(19.6)	(1.3)	(1.8)	(-)	(-)	(21.9)	(13.7)	(52.8)	(30.8)	(61.1)	(29.7)
Municipal bylaws	4 399	975	1 390	79	61	16	30	5	1 409	536	156	35	231	44	34	10	3 376	294	418	111	110	23	221	47
(%)	(18.8)	(19.3)	(2.1)	(0.6)	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(12.5)	(22.5)	(0.9)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(52.6)	(26.8)	(5.9)	(9.8)	(1.0)	(1.5)	(2.5)	(4.7)
TOTAL	23 384	5 048	65 334	14 183	16 628	3 191	6 989	1 715	11 282	2 382	17 558	2 788	20 106	3 391	11 774	2 510	6 416	1 097	7 041	1 136	10 721	1 534	8 703	992
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-6.4: ADULTS CHARGED BY TYPE OF OFFENCE AND SEX, SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1981

OFFENCE	MONTREAL		TORONTO		VANCOUVER		WINNIPEG		OTTAWA		HAMILTON		EDMONTON		CALGARY		QUEBEC		WINDSOR		LONDON		HALIFAX	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Against the person	2 526	186	6 144	1 022	1 973	165	637	104	649	60	870	142	1 107	132	1 004	115	515	19	662	113	726	93	304	27
(%)	(9.9)	(3.5)	(7.7)	(7.3)	(12.0)	(5.6)	(7.7)	(4.7)	(5.4)	(2.6)	(4.5)	(4.9)	(6.4)	(4.1)	(6.3)	(3.9)	(4.3)	(1.7)	(9.6)	(9.7)	(6.8)	(5.2)	(3.6)	(2.8)
Against property	9 053	2 452	15 685	5 630	6 403	1 812	3 672	1 326	4 143	1 124	3 051	965	6 093	1 771	7 572	2 107	2 332	738	2 033	534	1 860	855	1 720	487
(%)	(35.2)	(46.9)	(19.8)	(40.0)	(39.1)	(61.5)	(44.1)	(60.6)	(34.5)	(47.8)	(15.8)	(33.4)	(35.2)	(55.3)	(47.5)	(70.8)	(31.7)	(65.7)	(29.3)	(45.9)	(17.5)	(46.7)	(20.4)	(50.4)
Other Criminal Code	5 658	740	14 214	2 869	4 145	523	1 950	324	1 550	175	3 982	480	3 195	487	1 962	159	548	50	1 956	211	1 767	256	920	107
(%)	(22.1)	(14.1)	(17.9)	(20.4)	(25.3)	(17.7)	(23.4)	(14.8)	(12.9)	(7.4)	(20.7)	(16.7)	(18.4)	(15.2)	(12.3)	(5.3)	(7.5)	(4.5)	(28.2)	(18.1)	(16.6)	(13.2)	(10.9)	(11.1)
Federal statutes	1 502	305	5 361	831	2 812	324	982	155	526	52	2 672	325	2 491	369	2 016	211	259	23	137	18	578	45	233	15
(%)	(5.9)	(5.8)	(6.7)	(5.9)	(17.2)	(11.0)	(11.8)	(7.1)	(4.4)	(2.2)	(13.8)	(11.3)	(14.3)	(10.9)	(12.6)	(7.1)	(3.5)	(2.1)	(2.0)	(1.5)	(5.4)	(2.5)	(2.8)	(1.6)
Provincial statutes	1 480	184	35 385	3 539	972	114	991	259	3 779	384	8 462	953	4 209	411	3 104	275	-	-	1 831	149	5 461	528	5 073	290
(%)	(5.8)	(3.5)	(44.6)	(25.1)	(5.9)	(3.9)	(11.9)	(11.8)	(31.5)	(16.3)	(43.9)	(33.1)	(24.2)	(12.8)	(19.4)	(9.2)	(-)	(-)	(26.4)	(12.8)	(51.3)	(29.5)	(60.3)	(30.1)
Municipal bylaws	5 416	1 376	2 641	178	89	9	93	22	1 352	557	260	17	267	53	307	110	3 901	291	309	140	258	51	172	59
(%)	(21.1)	(26.2)	(3.3)	(1.3)	(0.5)	(0.3)	(1.1)	(1.0)	(11.3)	(23.7)	(1.3)	(0.6)	(1.5)	(1.7)	(1.9)	(3.7)	(55.0)	(26.0)	(4.5)	(12.0)	(2.4)	(2.9)	(2.0)	(4.0)
TOTAL	25 635	5 243	79 431	14 069	16 394	2 947	8 325	2 190	11 999	2 352	19 297	2 882	17 362	3 203	15 965	2 977	7 355	1 121	6 928	1 165	10 650	1 788	8 422	965
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-7: JUVENILES AND ADULTS CHARGED IN SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS AND RATIOS OF PERSONS CHARGED IN AREA TO PERSONS CHARGED IN PROVINCE, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

METROPOLITAN AREA	1977		1980		1981	
	JUVENILES	ADULTS	JUVENILES	ADULTS	JUVENILES	ADULTS
Halifax	501	10 875	679	9 695	713	9 387
% (Nova Scotia)	(23.8)	(27.4)	(20.6)	(20.4)	(22.3)	(19.6)
Montreal	6 798	27 478	10 484	28 432	10 384	30 878
% (Quebec)	(27.5)	(33.4)	(23.0)	(29.4)	(21.6)	(30.2)
Quebec	1 162	6 695	3 027	7 513	3 068	9 476
% (Quebec)	(4.7)	(8.2)	(6.6)	(7.8)	(6.4)	(8.3)
Toronto	5 501	78 452	23 300[1]	79 517[1]	23 805	93 500
% (Ontario)	(27.5)	(28.2)	(35.7)	(22.8)	(35.7)	(25.1)
Hamilton	944	12 732	4 227	20 326	3 939	22 179
% (Ontario)	(4.7)	(4.6)	(6.5)	(5.8)	(5.9)	(6.0)
Ottawa	1 285	12 373	3 445	13 664	3 469	14 351
% (Ontario)	(6.4)	(4.4)	(5.3)	(3.9)	(5.2)	(3.9)
London	757	7 626	1 867	12 255	1 976	12 438
% (Ontario)	(3.8)	(2.7)	(2.9)	(3.5)	(3.0)	(3.3)
Windsor	367	5 205	949	8 177	1 056	8 093
% (Ontario)	(1.8)	(1.9)	(1.5)	(2.3)	(1.6)	(2.2)
Winnipeg	6 956	8 237	5 905	8 704	6 669	10 515
% (Manitoba)	(50.5)	(27.4)	(39.9)	(30.4)	(43.0)	(33.4)
Edmonton	1 350	16 923	2 142	23 497	2 176	20 565
% (Alberta)	(15.9)	(16.5)	(9.5)	(18.5)	(18.2)	(15.4)
Calgary	2 914	22 193	14 718	14 284	3 909	18 942
% (Alberta)	(34.3)	(21.6)	(64.9)	(11.2)	(32.7)	(14.2)
Vancouver	3 472	17 448	5 217	19 819	4 496	19 341
% (British Columbia)	(29.2)	(32.8)	(21.0)	(32.1)	(17.6)	(30.1)

[1] In 1977, the Toronto Police Department abandoned the rule of the most serious offence and has since reported all offences committed during each incident.

Source: See table A-5.1.

TABLE A-8: RATIOS OF FEMALE JUVENILES AND ADULTS CHARGED IN SELECTED POLICE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

METROPOLITAN AREA	1977		1980	1981
	JUVENILES	ADULTS	ADULTS	ADULTS
Montreal	14.8	18.7	21.6	20.4
Toronto	23.0	17.7	21.7	17.7
Vancouver	18.8	22.8	19.2	18.0
Winnipeg	38.2	23.9	24.5	26.3
Ottawa	11.0	22.2	21.1	19.6
Hamilton	30.0	14.9	15.9	14.9
Edmonton	52.2[2]	14.1[2]	16.9	18.4
Calgary	47.4[2]	12.4[2]	21.3	18.7
Quebec	9.9	20.3	17.1	15.2
Windsor	7.9[1]	14.1	16.1	16.8
London	20.0	14.0	14.3	16.8
Halifax	13.9[1]	9.0	11.4	11.5

[1] Figures total less than 100 for females.

[2] Until 1978, the age limit for juveniles in Alberta was 16 years for boys and 18 years for girls.

Source: See Table A-5.1.

TABLE A-9.1: PERCENTAGE OF JUVENILES AND ADULTS CHARGED BY SEX AND TYPE OF OFFENCE, MONTREAL METROPOLITAN AREA, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

OFFENCE	1977				1980			1981		
	JUVENILES		ADULTS		JUVENILES	ADULTS		JUVENILES	ADULTS	
	Boys	Girls	Male	Female	Boys and girls	Male	Female	Boys and girls	Male	Female
Against the person	2.7	1.9	7.1	2.3	5.6	9.2	3.7	6.3	9.9	3.5
Against property	75.0	44.9	31.7	47.2	69.0	35.8	51.3	69.5	35.2	46.9
Other Criminal Code	8.4	9.2	27.7	24.0	16.3	22.5	16.0	16.7	22.1	14.1
Federal statutes	2.7	5.0	4.8	2.5	2.7	4.6	2.7	1.8	5.9	5.8
Provincial statutes	5.1	33.4	9.4	9.2	2.7	9.1	7.0	1.9	5.8	3.5
Municipal bylaws	6.1	5.6	19.3	14.8	3.7	18.8	19.3	3.8	21.1	26.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: See table A-5.1.

TABLE A-9.2: PERCENTAGE OF JUVENILES AND ADULTS CHARGED BY SEX AND TYPE OF OFFENCE, TORONTO METROPOLITAN AREA, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

OFFENCE	1977				1980			1981		
	JUVENILES		ADULTS		JUVENILES	ADULTS		JUVENILES	ADULTS	
	Boys	Girls	Male	Female	Boys and girls	Male	Female	Boys and girls	Male	Female
Against the person	5.5	5.5	8.0	5.8	4.5	9.7	6.6	4.5	7.7	7.3
Against property	69.4	54.8	18.9	37.3	41.3	23.4	35.2	42.7	19.8	40.0
Other Criminal Code	14.4	17.2	28.0	30.3	21.7	21.5	22.0	23.9	17.9	20.4
Federal statutes	4.2	11.9	8.9	8.3	4.2	7.9	5.4	3.1	6.7	5.9
Provincial statutes	6.3	10.6	34.9	17.5	26.7	35.4	30.2	23.9	44.6	25.1
Municipal bylaws	0.2	-	1.3	0.8	1.6	2.1	0.6	1.9	3.3	1.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: See table A-5.1.

TABLE A-9.3: PERCENTAGE OF JUVENILES AND ADULTS CHARGED BY SEX AND TYPE OF OFFENCE, VANCOUVER METROPOLITAN AREA, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

OFFENCE	1977				1980			1981		
	JUVENILES		ADULTS		JUVENILES	ADULTS		JUVENILES	ADULTS	
	Boys	Girls	Male	Female	Boys and girls	Male	Female	Boys and girls	Male	Female
Against the person	3.0	4.5	12.1	4.6	3.7	12.7	6.3	3.5	12.0	5.6
Against property	70.8	78.8	40.0	51.7	65.5	38.7	61.1	63.8	39.1	61.5
Other Criminal Code	10.5	3.8	25.5	25.7	12.6	25.2	15.5	13.2	25.3	17.7
Federal statutes	4.2	2.4	13.9	12.0	4.0	15.5	12.9	4.8	17.2	11.0
Provincial statutes	11.1	9.8	6.7	3.7	12.6	7.5	3.7	12.9	5.9	3.9
Municipal bylaws	0.4	0.7	1.8	2.3	1.6	0.4	0.5	1.8	0.5	0.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: See table A-5.1.

TABLE A-10: SEX DISTRIBUTION OF JUVENILES AGED 15 FOUND DELINQUENT, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1962 AND 1967[1]

Age and sex of juvenile delinquent	CANADA	NEW-FOUND-LAND	PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND	NOVA SCOTIA	NEW BRUNSWICK	QUEBEC	ONTARIO	MANITOBA	SASKAT-CHEWAN	ALBERTA	BRITISH COLUMBIA	YUKON AND N.W.T.
1962												
Boys	5 034	109	13	205	137	1 073	2 072	213	73	382	748	9
(% of total boys aged 15 and under found delinquent	(34.2)	(24.3)	(24.5)	(26.7)	(33.3)	(40.8)	(31.3)	(34.8)	(38.6)	(35.2)	(40.6)	(19.6)
Girls	761	5	-	25	10	98	387	64	11	61	97	3
(% of total girls aged 15 and under found delinquent	(41.4)	(15.6)	(0.0)	(45.5)	(43.5)	(46.2)	(38.4)	(49.2)	(40.7)	(54.5)	(42.2)	(75.0)
1967												
Boys	6 444	107	12	190	143	1 282	2 529	446	55	612	1 068	-
(% of total boys aged 15 and under found delinquent	(36.0)	(24.9)	(60.0)	(30.0)	(34.7)	(35.2)	(33.5)	(46.3)	(34.2)	(39.7)	(14.2)	(0.0)
Girls	1 022	6	-	13	10	161	456	95	6	105	168	2
(% of total girls aged 15 and under found delinquent	(39.0)	(28.6)	(0.0)	(22.4)	(30.3)	(41.6)	(37.8)	(44.6)	(30.0)	(39.9)	(41.0)	(28.6)

[1] Figures for the Yukon are from 1962; those for the Northwest Territories are from 1967.

Source: Statistics Canada, Juvenile Delinquent, Catalogue 85-202, 1962 and 1967.

TABLE A-11: DISTRIBUTION OF JUVENILES AGED 15 FOUND DELINQUENT, BY NATURE OF DELINQUENCY AND SEX, CANADA, 1962 AND 1967

NATURE OF DELINQUENCY	1962		1967	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Against the person	169	10	202	15
(%)	(3.4)	(1.3)	(3.1)	(1.5)
Against property with violence	1 054	22	1 484	46
(%)	(20.9)	(2.9)	(23.0)	(4.5)
Against property without violence	2 179	166	2 445	303
(%)	(43.3)	(21.8)	(38.0)	(29.6)
Other Criminal Code	597	121	757	178
(%)	(11.8)	(15.8)	(11.8)	(17.4)
Federal statutes	149	248	200	223
(%)	(3.0)	(32.6)	(3.1)	(21.8)
Provincial statutes	568	174	851	207
(%)	(11.3)	(22.9)	(13.2)	(20.3)
Municipal bylaws	318	20	505	50
(%)	(6.3)	(2.6)	(7.8)	(4.9)
TOTAL DES DÉLITS	5 034	761	6 444	1 022
(%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: See table A-10.

TABLE A-12.1: NATURE OF DELINQUENCY BY AGE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1974[1]

DELINQUENCY	CANADA			NEWFOUNDLAND		N.S.	N.B.	QUEBEC			ONTARIO	MANITOBA			SASK.	ALBERTA			YUKON
	15	16	17	15	16	15	15	15	16	17	15	15	16[2]	17[2]	15	15[2]	16	17	15
Against the person (%)	462 (2.1)	193 (2.0)	284 (2.7)	3 (1.9)	3 (1.1)	21 (6.1)	18 (4.5)	59 (1.2)	108 (1.7)	169 (2.2)	247 (2.4)	53 (3.6)	71 (3.3)	102 (5.0)	21 (3.6)	42 (1.1)	11 (1.9)	13 (2.1)	- -
Against property (%)	13 449 (62.3)	5 361 (56.5)	5 246 (49.9)	91 (58.3)	123 (47.1)	209 (60.4)	253 (62.8)	3 119 (66.5)	3 557 (54.9)	3 811 (48.5)	6 036 (59.5)	1 082 (73.6)	1 460 (67.2)	1 271 (61.7)	432 (73.8)	2 221 (59.2)	221 (38.7)	164 (27.0)	6 (54.6)
Other Criminal Code (%)	2 141 (10.0)	1356 (14.4)	1 472 (14.0)	24 (15.4)	79 (30.3)	31 (8.9)	59 (14.2)	583 (12.4)	782 (12.0)	965 (12.3)	820 (8.2)	200 (13.6)	452 (20.7)	448 (21.7)	71 (12.2)	352 (9.4)	43 (7.5)	59 (9.8)	1 (9.1)
Federal statutes (%)	1 294 (6.0)	534 (5.6)	686 (6.5)	3 (1.9)	16 (6.1)	14 (4.1)	5 (1.2)	180 (3.8)	327 (5.1)	442 (5.6)	760 (7.5)	97 (6.6)	123 (5.7)	190 (9.2)	12 (2.0)	222 (5.9)	68 (11.9)	54 (8.8)	1 (9.1)
Provincial statutes (%)	4 030 (18.7)	1 842 (19.4)	2 494 (23.7)	35 (22.5)	40 (15.4)	70 (20.2)	69 (17.1)	668 (14.2)	1 520 (23.5)	2 143 (27.3)	2 200 (21.7)	33 (2.2)	53 (2.4)	33 (1.6)	49 (8.4)	903 (24.1)	229 (40.0)	318 (52.3)	3 (27.2)
Municipal bylaws (%)	170 (0.9)	177 (1.9)	313 (3.0)	- -	- -	1 (0.3)	1 (0.2)	76 (1.6)	166 (2.6)	299 (3.8)	75 (0.7)	4 (0.3)	11 (0.5)	14 (0.7)	- -	13 (0.3)	- -	- -	- -
Unknown (%)	9 -	18 (0.2)	27 (0.2)	- -	- -	- -	- -	8 (0.2)	14 (0.2)	25 (0.3)	- -	1 (0.1)	4 (0.2)	2 (0.1)	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
TOTAL (%)	21 555 (100.0)	9 481 (100.0)	10 522 (100.0)	156 (100.0)	261 (100.0)	346 (100.0)	403 (100.0)	4 693 (100.0)	6 474 (100.0)	7 854 (100.0)	10 138 (100.0)	1 470 (100.0)	2 174 (100.0)	2 060 (100.0)	585 (100.0)	3 753 (100.0)	572 (100.0)	608 (100.0)	11 (100.0)
(%) of total juvenile delinquents	(28.9)	(12.7)	(14.1)	(23.2)	(38.8)	(33.0)	(35.4)	(19.2)	(26.5)	(32.1)	(38.8)	(15.8)	(23.4)	(22.2)	(42.6)	(35.7)	(5.4)	(5.8)	(20.4)

[1] Table based on the number of delinquencies. The data for British Columbia, Prince Edward Island and the Northwest Territories are unavailable.

[2] Girls only, the age limit for boys being 16.

Source: Statistics Canada, Juvenile Delinquents, Catalogue 85-202, 1974, 1980 and 1981.

TABLE A-12.2: NATURE OF DELINQUENCY BY AGE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1980

DELINQUENCY	CANADA			NEWFOUNDLAND		P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	QUEBEC			ONTARIO	MANITOBA			SASK.	ALBERTA	B.C.		YUKON	N.W.T.
	15	16	17	15	16	15	15	15	15	16	17	15	15	16	17	15	15	15	16	15	15
Against the person (%)	897 (3.0)	423 (2.0)	319 (2.7)	14 (1.6)	27 (2.2)	3 (5.2)	41 (4.4)	10 (1.1)	52 (1.5)	98 (1.8)	153 (2.2)	450 (3.8)	87 (3.3)	116 (3.0)	166 (3.5)	34 (3.6)	89 (2.4)	113 (2.7)	182 (1.8)	1 (1.7)	3 (2.5)
Against property (%)	18 571 (62.6)	9 407 (44.7)	6 386 (54.5)	503 (56.8)	558 (45.3)	44 (75.9)	586 (62.5)	610 (67.6)	2 717 (77.3)	4 114 (73.5)	4 577 (65.8)	7 130 (60.9)	1 424 (54.4)	1 673 (42.8)	1 808 (37.9)	723 (76.6)	2 406 (64.3)	2 299 (55.3)	3 062 (29.8)	45 (75.0)	84 (70.0)
Other Criminal Code (%)	3 714 (13.7)	2 224 (10.6)	1 677 (14.3)	122 (13.6)	178 (14.5)	10 (17.2)	136 (14.5)	100 (11.1)	484 (13.7)	715 (12.8)	1 079 (15.5)	1 410 (13.1)	436 (16.6)	512 (13.1)	597 (12.5)	151 (17.0)	371 (9.9)	478 (16.3)	819 (7.9)	5 (8.3)	11 (9.2)
Federal statutes (%)	1 471 (4.9)	756 (3.6)	426 (3.6)	17 (1.9)	47 (3.8)	1 (1.7)	41 (4.4)	54 (6.0)	50 (1.4)	158 (2.8)	216 (3.1)	759 (6.5)	66 (2.5)	138 (3.5)	210 (4.4)	23 (2.4)	190 (5.1)	269 (6.5)	413 (4.0)	- -	1 (0.8)
Provincial statutes (%)	4 933 (16.6)	8 128 (38.7)	2 700 (23.0)	228 (25.8)	420 (34.1)	- -	129 (13.8)	128 (14.2)	193 (5.5)	436 (7.8)	719 (10.4)	1 939 (16.5)	603 (23.0)	1 469 (37.5)	1 981 (41.5)	13 (1.4)	673 (18.0)	997 (23.9)	5 803 (56.4)	9 (15.0)	21 (17.5)
Municipal bylaws (%)	65 (0.2)	91 (0.4)	219 (1.9)	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)	- -	4 (0.4)	- -	20 (0.6)	75 (1.3)	210 (3.0)	22 (0.2)	5 (0.2)	5 (0.1)	9 (0.2)	- -	11 (0.3)	2 (0.1)	10 (0.1)	- -	- -
Unknown (%)	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
TOTAL (%)	29 651 (100.0)	21 029 (100.0)	11 727 (100.0)	885 (100.0)	1 231 (100.0)	58 (100.0)	937 (100.0)	902 (100.0)	3 516 (100.0)	5 596 (100.0)	6 954 (100.0)	11 710 (100.0)	2 621 (100.0)	3 913 (100.0)	4 771 (100.0)	944 (100.0)	3 740 (100.0)	4 158 (100.0)	10 289 (100.0)	60 (100.0)	120 (100.0)
(%) of total juvenile delinquents	(31.3)	(22.2)	(12.4)	(26.4)	(36.8)	(33.9)	(45.9)	(48.2)	(19.6)	(31.2)	(38.7)	(46.8)	(18.0)	(26.8)	(32.7)	(43.4)	(43.1)	(22.6)	(55.8)	(38.0)	(35.1)

[1] Table based on the number of delinquencies.
Source: See Table A-12.1.

TABLE A-12.3: NATURE OF DELINQUENT ACTS BY AGE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1981[1]

DELINQUENCY	CANADA			NEWFOUNDLAND		P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	QUEBEC			ONTARIO	MANITOBA			SASK.	ALBERTA	B.C.		YUKON	N.W.T.
	15	16	17	15	16	15	15	15	15	16	17	15	15	16	17	15	15	15	16	15	15
Against the person	936	467	315	20	26	1	29	19	108	135	166	459	83	110	149	24	77	112	196	0	4
(%)	(2.7)	(1.7)	(1.6)	(1.8)	(2.1)	(0.9)	(3.6)	(2.7)	(1.9)	(1.7)	(1.7)	(3.8)	(2.3)	(1.6)	(1.5)	(2.0)	(1.9)	(2.4)	(1.6)	(1.4)	(3.3)
Against property	22 163	12 629	8 902	672	666	93	476	487	4 426	6 252	6 578	7 673	1 857	2 113	2 324	939	2 682	2 721	3 598	57	80
(%)	(64.8)	(44.9)	(45.2)	(60.6)	(54.5)	(83.8)	(58.6)	(68.5)	(78.6)	(77.0)	(66.2)	(63.1)	(52.1)	(30.5)	(23.8)	(79.8)	(64.7)	(58.9)	(30.3)	(78.1)	(66.7)
Other Criminal Code	4 387	2 503	2 215	188	158	11	126	103	795	948	1 489	1 503	445	554	726	168	502	526	843	4	16
(%)	(12.8)	(8.9)	(11.2)	(17.0)	(12.5)	(9.9)	(15.5)	(14.2)	(14.0)	(11.7)	(15.0)	(12.3)	(12.5)	(7.9)	(7.4)	(14.4)	(12.1)	(11.4)	(7.1)	(5.5)	(13.3)
Federal statutes	1 382	768	529	37	71	2	43	27	55	158	309	740	62	159	220	23	143	246	380	2	2
(%)	(4.0)	(2.7)	(2.7)	(3.3)	(5.8)	(1.8)	(5.3)	(3.8)	(1.0)	(1.9)	(3.1)	(6.1)	(1.7)	(2.3)	(2.2)	(1.9)	(3.4)	(5.3)	(3.2)	(2.7)	(1.7)
Provincial statutes	5 267	11 605	7 402	187	296	4	135	74	208	480	1 065	1 760	1 109	3 986	6 337	22	727	1 013	6 843	10	18
(%)	(15.4)	(41.2)	(37.6)	(16.9)	(24.2)	(3.6)	(16.6)	(10.4)	(3.7)	(5.9)	(10.7)	(14.5)	(31.1)	(57.5)	(64.8)	(1.9)	(17.5)	(21.9)	(57.7)	(13.7)	(15.0)
Municipal bylaws	1 011	171	339	5	6	-	3	1	39	147	328	23	10	12	11	-	16	4	6	-	-
(%)	(0.3)	(0.6)	(1.7)	(0.4)	(0.5)	-	(0.4)	(0.1)	(0.7)	(1.8)	(3.3)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.1)	-	(0.4)	(0.1)	(0.1)	-	-
Unknown	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	34 236	28 143	19 702	1 109	1 223	111	812	711	5 631	8 120	9 935	12 158	3 566	6 934	9 767	1 176	4 147	4 622	11 866	73	120
(%)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)
(%) of total juvenile delinquents	(28.6)	(23.5)	(16.5)	(30.5)	(33.6)	(46.8)	(43.7)	(45.)	(21.2)	(30.6)	(37.4)	(45.8)	(14.6)	(28.5)	(40.1)	(42.5)	(41.5)	(21.5)	(55.2)	(33.3)	(27.9)

[1] Table based on the number of delinquencies.
Source: See Table A-12.1.

TABLE A-13: COURT DECISION BY AGE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1974, 1980 AND 1981[1]

COURT DECISION	CANADA	NFL.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	QUEBEC	ONTARIO	MANITOBA	SASKATCHEWAN[2]	ALBERTA	B.C.	YUKON	N.W.T.
1974													
Total number of juveniles appearing in court													
15 years old	11 390	112	-	-	254	2 629	5 671	604	376	1 734	-	10	-
16 years old	5 226	135	-	-	-	3 880	-	778	-	433	-	-	-
17 years old	6 141	-	-	-	-	4 835	-	877	-	429	-	-	-
(%) of juveniles found delinquent:													
15 years old	(82.5)	(96.4)	-	-	(96.1)	(80.0)	(80.3)	(74.3)	(94.4)	(90.7)	-	(90.0)	-
16 years old	(81.6)	(88.1)	-	-	-	(81.8)	-	(77.6)	-	(85.2)	-	-	-
17 years old	(82.3)	-	-	-	-	(82.8)	-	(77.4)	-	(85.8)	-	-	-
1980													
Total number of juveniles appearing in court													
16 years old	4 151	745	-	-	-	1 487	-	1 919	-	-	-	-	-
17 years old	4 608	-	-	-	-	2 165	-	2 442	-	1	-	-	-
(%) of juveniles found delinquent:													
15 years old	(81.4)	(95.6)	(92.7)	(92.2)	(93.9)	(82.1)	(77.2)	(66.5)	(90.5)	(91.5)	-	(87.1)	(94.6)
16 years old	(77.7)	(87.8)	-	-	-	(86.9)	-	(66.8)	-	-	-	-	-
17 years old	(77.2)	-	-	-	-	(87.0)	-	(68.5)	-	(100.0)	-	-	-
1981													
Total number of juveniles appearing in court													
15 years old	12 459	537	49	467	367	1 237	6 015	1 379	389	1 916	-	32	71
16 years old	6 206	673	-	-	-	1 929	-	3 604	-	-	-	-	-
17 years old	8 517	-	-	-	-	2 890	-	5 537	-	-	-	-	-
(%) of juveniles found delinquent:													
15 years old	(81.9)	(94.6)	(83.7)	90.8	(88.0)	(89.1)	(75.6)	(73.6)	(92.3)	(93.2)	-	(90.6)	(94.4)
16 years old	(83.6)	(90.6)	-	-	-	(87.7)	-	(80.1)	-	-	-	-	-
17 years old	(83.0)	-	-	-	-	(87.9)	-	(80.4)	-	-	-	-	-

[1] Table based on the number of juveniles having gone through the judicial process.
[2] The data for Saskatchewan are confined to urban centres.
Source: See Tableau A-12.1.

TABLE A-14: ADULTS CONVICTED OF INDICTABLE OFFENCES BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1962 AND 1972

PERSONS CONVICTED	CANADA	NFL.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	QUEBEC[2]	ONTARIO	MANITOBA	SASKAT-CHEWAN	ALBERTA[2]	B.C.	YUKON	N.W.T.
1962													
16-19 yrs. Male	10 692	283	19	501	364	2 475	3 765	465	468	1 036	1 276	17	23
(%)[1]	(31.6)	(36.2)	(36.5)	(39.8)	(36.9)	(36.4)	(31.5)	(24.6)	(32.0)	(27.9)	(27.1)	(15.3)	(23.7)
Female	645	20	1	24	7	97	229	33	30	83	119	-	2
(%)[1]	(21.5)	(31.7)	(50.0)	(30.8)	(15.6)	(23.4)	(19.6)	(15.3)	(28.8)	(21.4)	(23.2)	-	(33.3)
20-24 yrs. Male	7 929	217	7	316	250	1 687	2 703	460	394	897	938	33	27
(%)[1]	(23.5)	(27.7)	(13.5)	(25.1)	(25.3)	(24.8)	(22.6)	(24.4)	(26.9)	(24.1)	(19.9)	(29.7)	(27.8)
Female	575	14	1	19	15	90	214	44	14	75	86	1	2
(%)[1]	(19.2)	(22.2)	(50.0)	(24.4)	(33.3)	(21.7)	(18.3)	(20.5)	(13.5)	(19.4)	(16.8)	(50.0)	(33.3)
1972													
16-19 yrs. Male	11 440	210	5	767	544		6 149	702	925		2 094	16	28
(%)[1]	(36.1)	(32.4)	(38.5)	(41.0)	(44.8)		(39.0)	(25.8)	(42.6)		(29.0)	(33.3)	(33.3)
						N/A				N/A			
Female	1 733	29	-	103	56		882	101	166		393	1	2
(%)[1]	(28.5)	(27.6)	-	(30.3)	(34.1)		(29.1)	(22.2)	(39.2)		(25.3)	(25.0)	(33.3)
20-24 yrs. Male	8 820	224	4	528	305		4 229	914	543		2 031	15	27
(%)[1]	(27.8)	(34.5)	(30.8)	(28.2)	(25.1)		(26.9)	(33.6)	(25.0)		(28.2)	(31.2)	(32.1)
Female	1 447	28	-	67	39		708	112	113		376	2	2
(%)[1]	(23.8)	(26.7)	-	(19.7)	(23.8)		(23.4)	(24.6)	(26.7)		(24.2)	(50.0)	(33.3)

[1] Sex ratio of persons convicted in this age group to total persons convicted of known age.

[2] Unavailable for 1972.

Source: Statistics Canada, Statistics on Criminal and Other Offences, Catalogue 85-201, 1962 and 1972.

TABLE A-15: AREA OF RESIDENCE OF ADULTS CONVICTED OF INDICTABLE OFFENCES, BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, 1962 AND 1969

AREA OF RESIDENCE	16 - 19 years				20 - 24 years			
	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]
1962								
Urban	8 248	(31.1)	533	(20.4)	6 074	(22.9)	510	(19.6)
	(77.1)		(82.6)		(76.6)		(88.7)	
Rural	2 245	(35.6)	102	(28.8)	1 624	(25.7)	59	(16.7)
	(21.0)		(15.8)		(20.5)		(10.3)	
Undetermined or not stated	199	(15.1)	10	(25.6)	231	(17.5)	6	(15.4)
	(1.9)		(1.6)		(2.9)		(1.0)	
TOTAL	10 692	(31.6)	645	(21.5)	7 929	(23.5)	575	(19.2)
1969[2]								
Urban	5 212	(32.1)	573	(22.2)	4 480	(27.6)	585	(22.7)
	(53.8)		(57.9)		(57.3)		(63.8)	
Rural	1 384	(35.3)	80	(21.7)	1 115	(28.5)	64	(17.3)
	(14.3)		(8.1)		(14.3)		(7.0)	
Undetermined or not stated	3 086	(35.6)	337	(29.3)	2 220	(5.6)	268	(23.3)
	(31.9)		(34.0)		(28.4)		(29.2)	
TOTAL	9 682	(33.6)	990	(24.1)	7 815	(27.1)	917	(22.4)
%	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

[1] Sex ratio of persons convicted in this age group to total persons convicted.

[2] Most recent year available.

Source: Statistics Canada, Statistics on Criminal and Other Offences, Catalogue 85-201, 1962 and 1969.

TABLE A-16: OCCUPATION OF ADULTS CONVICTED OF INDICTABLE OFFENCES, BY AGE AND SEX, 1962 AND 1969

OCCUPATION	1962								1969[7]							
	16 - 19 years				20 - 24 years				16 - 19 years				20 - 24 years			
	Male	(%)[6]	Female	(%)	Male	(%)	Female	(%)	Male	(%)	Female	(%)	Male	(%)	Female	(%)
Agriculture	453	(29.8)	3	(37.5)	381	(25.0)	2	(25.0)	127	(25.2)	1	(33.3)	125	(24.8)	2	(66.7)
Armed Forces	201	(43.0)	-	-	182	(39.0)	-	-	35	(36.5)	-	-	37	(38.5)	2	(66.7)
Clerical	281	(28.6)	60	(27.1)	286	(29.2)	64	(28.9)	134	(28.0)	58	(25.2)	164	(34.4)	77	(33.5)
Commerce	311	(18.5)	19	(26.0)	360	(21.4)	20	(27.4)	119	(16.7)	21	(24.4)	210	(29.5)	36	(41.9)
Communication	6	(7.8)	3	(23.1)	28	(36.4)	4	(30.8)	12	(18.5)	4	(33.3)	25	(38.5)	3	(25.0)
Construction	784	(19.0)	1	(16.7)	1 038	(25.2)	-	-	563	(20.4)	2	(11.1)	736	(26.7)	5	(27.8)
Electric light[1]	8	(5.9)	-	-	20	(14.8)	-	-	5	(5.9)	-	-	17	(20.0	-	-
Finance	2	(2.9)	-	-	5	(7.4)	1	(50.0)	-	-	-	-	9	(32.1)	-	-
Fishing[2]	257	(17.2)	1	(100.0)	414	(27.7)	-	-	216	(19.0)	1	(14.3)	334	(29.4)	2	(28.6)
Labourer	2 647	(33.5)	4	(30.8)	2 182	(27.7)	6	(46.1)	1 362	(35.6)	4	(33.3)	1 232	(32.2)	4	(33.3)
Managerial	8	(1.6)	-	-	36	(7.3)	3	(14.3)	7	(3.9)	-	-	23	(12.8)	2	(33.3)
Manufacturing[3]	802	(23.7)	26	(23.9)	936	(27.7)	26	(23.9)	429	(20.4)	25	(25.3)	713	(33.9)	22	(22.2)
Mining	28	(5.6)	-	-	121	(24.0)	-	-	48	(11.3)	-	-	133	(31.3)	-	-
Professional	22	(5.4)	2	(5.7)	90	(22.3)	10	(28.6)	9	(3.9)	3	(6.0)	64	(27.5)	14	(28.0)
Service[4]	240	(14.8)	135	(16.6)	316	(19.5)	197	(24.2)	192	(17.0)	150	(24.9)	280	(24.8)	167	(27.8)
Transportation	397	(14.9)	-	-	643	(24.2)	1	(12.5)	176	(13.0)	1	(14.3)	396	(29.3)	2	(28.6)
Housewife[5]	-	-	56	(4.3)	-	-	194	(14.8)	-	-	38	(3.2)	-	-	183	(15.4)
Student	2 302	(95.5)	96	(97.0)	94	(3.9)	3	(3.0)	1 876	(80.8)	187	(79.2)	394	(17.0)	44	(18.6)
Retired	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unemployed	1 447	(55.4)	100	(55.6)	516	(19.7)	33	(18.3)	881	(46.9)	105	(47.7)	528	(28.1)	54	(24.5)
Not stated	496	(47.2)	39	(54.2)	281	(26.7)	11	(15.3)	3 491	(37.4)	390	(29.9)	2 395	(25.7)	298	(22.8)
TOTAL	10 692	(31.6)	645	(21.5)	7 929	(23.5)	575	(19.2)	9 682	(33.6)	990	(24.1)	7 815	(27.1)	917	(22.4)

1 Electric light and power production and stationary enginemen.
2 Fishing, trapping and logging.
3 Manufacturing and mechanical.
4 Domestic, personal, protective and other services.
5 Ménagères.
6 Sex ratio of persons convicted in this age group to total persons convicted.
7 Most recent year available.

Source: See Tableau A-15.

TABLE A-17: PERSONS CONVICTED BY AGE GROUP, SEX AND NATURE OF INDICTABLE OFFENCE, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1962 AND 1972

Indictable offence	16-17 years				18-19 years				20-24 years			
	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]
1962												
Against the person	292 (5.1)	(5.6)	15 (5.0)	(6.6)	526 (10.6)	(10.2)	14 (4.1)	(6.1)	1 331 (16.8)	(25.7)	50 (8.7)	(21.9)
Against property (with violence)	1 770 (30.8)	(24.0)	39 (13.0)	(33.9)	1 515 (30.7)	(20.5)	19 (5.5)	(16.5)	1 990 (25.1)	(27.0)	17 (3.0)	(14.8)
Against property (without violence)	3 475 (60.4)	(18.9)	231 (77.0)	(10.1)	2 582 (52.3)	(14.1)	284 (82.3)	(12.4)	3 906 (49.2)	(21.3)	416 (72.3)	(18.2)
Other Criminal Code	213 (3.7)	(8.0)	14 (4.7)	(5.4)	310 (6.3)	(11.7)	22 (6.4)	(8.5)	664 (8.4)	(25.0)	52 (9.0)	(20.2)
Federal statutes	2 (0.0)	(0.8)	1 (0.3)	(0.9)	7 (0.1)	(2.9)	6 (1.7)	(5.7)	38 (0.5)	(15.5)	40 (7.0)	(37.7)
Total (100%)	5 752 (100.0)	(17.0)	300 (100.0)	(10.0)	4 940 (100.0)	(14.6)	345 (100.0)	(11.5)	7 929 (100.0)	(23.5)	575 (100.0)	(19.2)
1972												
Against the person	241 (4.8)	(6.4)	15 (2.1)	(5.9)	529 (8.3)	(14.0)	42 (4.2)	(16.6)	1 092 (12.4)	(29.0)	64 (4.4)	(25.3)
Against property (with violence)	1 445 (28.6)	(26.4)	34 (4.6)	(24.8)	1 447 (22.6)	(26.4)	29 (2.9)	(21.2)	1 406 (15.9)	(25.7)	45 (3.1)	(32.8)
Against property (without violence)	2 880 (57.2)	(16.7)	638 (87.2)	(12.3)	3 410 (53.2)	(19.8)	812 (81.0)	(15.7)	4 438 (50.4)	(25.7)	1 164 (80.5)	(22.4)
Other Criminal Code	174 (3.5)	(6.7)	15 (2.1)	(6.4)	389 (6.1)	(15.0)	35 (3.5)	(14.9)	709 (8.0)	(27.3)	74 (5.1)	(31.5)
Federal statutes	295 (5.9)	(11.1)	29 (4.0)	(10.5)	630 (9.8)	(23.6)	84 (8.4)	(30.5)	1 175 (13.3)	(44.1)	100 (6.9)	(36.4)
Total (100%)	5 035 (100.0)	(15.9)	731 (100.0)	(12.0)	6 405 (100.0)	(20.2)	1 002 (100.0)	(16.5)	8 820 (100.0)	(27.8)	1 447 (100.0)	(23.8)

[1] Sex ratio of persons convicted in this age group to total persons convicted.

Source: See Table A-14.

TABLE A-18: SENTENCES OF PERSONS CONVICTED OF INDICTABLE OFFENCES, BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, CANADA, 1962 AND 1972

SENTENCE	1962								1972[3]							
	16-19 years				20-24 years				16-19 years				20-24 years			
	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]	Male	(%)[1]	Female	(%)[1]
Suspended sent. w/o probation (%)	1 169 (10.9)	32.1	114 (17.7)	18.6	856 (10.8)	23.5	122 (21.2)	19.9	755 (6.6)	38.4	226 (13.0)	30.2	477 (5.4)	24.3	163 (11.3)	21.8
Suspended sent. w/ probation (%)	3 926 (36.8)	65.4	292 (45.2)	47.4	895 (11.3)	14.9	105 (18.3)	17.0	4 238 (37.1)	53.5	584 (33.7)	39.8	1 835 (20.8)	23.2	357 (24.7)	24.3
Fine (%)	1 537 (14.5)	22.2	99 (15.3)	9.6	1 649 (20.8)	23.8	155 (27.0)	15.1	2 714 (23.7)	28.6	f682 (39.3)	23.0	2 792 (31.7)	29.4	660 (45.6)	22.3
Prison - 6 months or less	2 022	21.7	98	20.0	2 343	25.1	126	25.7	2 452	31.8	174	27.1	2 278	29.5	184	28.7
- 6-24 months	802	27.4	9	10.3	801	27.4	32	36.8	683	28.5	21	22.6	775	32.3	36	38.7
Total (%)	2 804 (26.3)	23.0	107 (16.6)	18.5	3 144 (39.7)	25.6	158 (27.4)	27.3	3 135 (27.4)	31.0	195 (11.3)	26.6	3 053 (34.6)	30.2	220 (15.2)	30.0
Reformatory- 6 months or less	261	39.7	3	23.1	145	22.0	4	30.8	132	56.2	5	33.3	60	25.5	5	33.3
- 6-24 months	326	35.9	20	29.4	285	31.4	17	25.0	259	54.9	31	30.4	120	25.4	29	28.4
Total (%)	587 (5.5)	37.5	23 (3.6)	28.4	430 (5.4)	27.4	21 (3.7)	25.9	391 (3.4)	55.3	36 (2.1)	30.8	180 (2.0)	25.5	34 (2.3)	29.1
Training School (%)	197 (1.8)	100.0	5 (0.8)	100.0	- -	-	- -	-	4 (0.0)	100.0	2 (0.1)	66.7	- -	-	1 (0.1)	33.3
Penitentiary																
- Less than 5 years	419	15.7	4	5.9	838	31.3	11	16.2	172	15.6	5	14.3	353	32.1	8	22.9
- 5-10 years	22	6.1	1	12.5	84	23.2	2	25.0	17	6.3	2	16.7	86	32.0	3	25.0
- 10 years or more	9	6.5	-	-	30	21.7	1	100.0	12	7.7	1	14.3	44	28.4	1	14.3
- Preventive detention	1	25.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	25.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total (%)	451 (4.2)	14.2	5 (0.8)	6.5	952 (12.0)	29.9	14 (2.4)	18.2	202 (1.8)	13.2	8 (0.5)	14.8	483 (5.5)	31.6	12 (0.8)	22.2
Death (%)	1 (0.0)	7.7	- -	-	3 (0.0)	23.1	- -	-	1 (0.0)	100.0	- -	-	- -	-	- -	-
GRAND TOTAL (100%)	10 692 (100.0)	31.6	645 (100.0)	21.5	929 (100.0)	23.5	575 (100.0)	19.2	11 440 (100.0)	36.1	1 733 (100.0)	28.5	8 820 (100.0)	27.8	1 447 (100.0)	23.8

[1] Sex ratio of persons convicted in this age group to total persons convicted.

[2] Confined to sentences of 3 to 6 months since by definition reformatories are correctional institutions in which sentences of 3 months or more are served.

[3] Excludes Quebec and Alberta.

Source: See Table A-14.

TABLE A-19: ADMISSIONS TO TRAINING SCHOOLS BY AGE AND SEX, CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1964 AND 1972

PROVINCE	15 years		16 years		17 years		18 years and over		Ratio of 15 years old and over to total admissions by province	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1964										
Newfoundland	12	4	3	2	-	1	-	-	(38.5)	(70.0)
Nova Scotia	48	23	43	13	2	1	-	-	(59.2)	(68.5)
New Brunswick	26	-	14	-	2	-	-	-	(49.4)	-
Quebec	129	59	173	62	140	43	39	12	(71.6)	(62.6)
Ontario	286	100	222	69	7	1	2	-	(54.2)	(62.7)
Manitoba	27	13	37	11	32	11	8	3	(68.4)	(64.9)
Saskatchewan[1]	6	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	(52.6)	-
Alberta	44	14	33	19	-	11	-	11	(77.0)	(91.5)
British Columbia	123	34	142	32	89	25	20	8	(77.7)	(79.2)
Canada	701	247	671	208	272	93	69	34	(64.4)	(67.7)
1972										
Newfoundland	20	6	17	6	2	1	-	-	(70.9)	(59.1)
Nova Scotia	60	22	30	13	-	-	-	-	(66.7)	(72.6)
New Brunswick	32	-	28	-	1	-	-	-	(64.2)	-
Quebec	134	127	166	150	139	112	74	24	(77.9)	(79.1)
Ontario	385	179	295	136	-	-	-	-	(70.7)	(72.4)
Manitoba	3	14	8	8	13	4	2	1	(96.3)	(60.0)
Saskatchewan[1]	20	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	(62.2)	-
Canada	654	348	552	313	155	117	76	25	(72.7)	(73.3)

[1] There are no institutions for girls in Saskatchewan.

Source: Statistics Canada, Training Schools, Catalogue 85-208, 1964 and 1972.

TABLE A-20: PERSONS ADMITTED TO FEDERAL PENITENTIARIES BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, CANADA, 1964-65, 1972, 1977, 1979-80 AND 1980-81

PERIOD	15 - 19 years		20 - 24 years	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
1964-65	554	14	1 025	13
%[1]	(15.3)	(19.4)	(28.4)	(18.1)
1972	486	5	1 356	20
%[1]	(11.7)	(7.1)	(32.7)	(28.6)
1977[2]	813	16	1 208	25
%[1]	(20.2)	(14.3)	(26.8)	(22.3)
1979-80	489		1 543	
%[1]	(10.5)		(33.3)	
1980-81	517		1 560	
%[1]	(10.8)		(32.6)	

[1] Calculated from gender-based total for all ages.

[2] As of 1977, the age groups are "under 21 years" and "21-24 years," the age limits having been changed for reporting purposes.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Correctional Institutions Statistics, Catalogue 85-207, 1964-65, 1972 and 1977.

Statistics Canada, Adult Correctional Services in Canada, Catalogue 85-211, 1980-81.

TABLE A-21: ADMISSIONS TO FEDERAL PENITENTIARIES BY AGE ON ADMISSION, CANADA AND REGIONS[1], 1979-80 AND 1980-81

REGION	15 yrs.	16 yrs.	17 yrs.	18 yrs.	19 yrs.	15 - 19 years		20 - 24 years	
						Number	(%)[2]	Nombres	(%)[2]
1979-80									
Atlantic	-	3	34	49	51	137	(23.5)	216	(37.1)
Quebec	-	1	5	37	76	119	(8.9)	509	(38.1)
Ontario	-	2	10	29	39	80	(7.6)	306	(29.2)
Prairies	1	4	17	45	59	126	(10.9)	385	(33.4)
Pacific	-	-	2	11	14	27	(5.2)	127	(24.3)
Canada	1	10	68	171	239	489	(10.5)	1 543	(33.3)
1980-81									
Atlantic	-	5	26	35	50	116	(20.6)	202	(35.9)
Quebec	1	-	7	54	94	156	(10.9)	522	(36.6)
Ontario	-	-	8	16	41	65	(6.4)	257	(25.3)
Prairies	-	2	32	56	65	155	(12.8)	425	(35.2)
Pacific	-	-	4	5	16	25	(4.4)	154	(26.8)
Canada	1	7	77	166	266	517	(10.8)	1 560	(32.6)

[1] The region refers to the place of incarceration, not the inmate's place of residence.
[2] Calculated from gender-based total for all ages.

Source: Statistics Canada, Adult Correctional Services in Canada, Catalogue 85-211, 1980-81.

TABLE A-22: AGE PROFILE OF FEDERAL PENITENTIARY POPULATION AS OF MARCH 31, 1980 AND 1981

YEAR	Under 15	15	16	17	18	19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-59	Over 59	Total
1980	-	-	2	29	98	269	1 995	2 509	1 804	1 036	651	418	398	115	9 324
%	-	-	--	--	1	3	22	27	19	11	7	5	4	1	100
1981	-	-	2	44	132	256	2 672	2 419	1 686	961	591	387	357	111	9 618
%	-	-	--	--	1	3	28	25	18	10	6	4	4	1	100

Source: See Table A-21.

TABLE A-23.1: OFFENCES BY SEX AND AGE ON ADMISSION, CANADA, 1964-65 AND 1972

Offence	15		16		17		18		19		15 - 19				20 - 24			
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	(%)[1]	F	(%)[1]	M	(%)[1]	F	(%)[1]
1964-65																		
Against the person	-	-	1	-	8	-	15	-	11	-	35	(7.7)	-	-	111	(24.3)	1	(9.1)
Against property	9	-	34	-	101	1	158	4	184	8	486	(17.6)	13	(38.2)	834	(30.2)	8	(23.5)
Other Criminal Code	-	-	-	-	3	-	7	1	5	-	15	(10.2)	-	-	34	(23.1)	2	(28.6)
Federal statutes	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	3	-	4	(5.3)	-	-	9	(11.8)	2	(10.5)
Parole violation, habitual criminals and dangerous sexual offenders	-	-	1	-	4	-	2	1	7	-	14	(8.2)	1	(100.0)	37	(21.6)	-	-
Total	9	-	36	-	116	1	183	5	210	8	554	(15.3)	14	(19.4)	1 025	(28.4)	13	(18.1)
1972																		
Against the person	1	-	-	-	10	-	15	1	25	2	51	(8.6)	3	(17.6)	182	(30.8)	4	(23.5)
Against property	1	-	12	-	60	-	124	-	181	-	378	(14.7)	-	-	879	(34.2)	6	(31.6)
Other Criminal Code	-	-	-	-	4	-	7	-	8	-	19	(7.9)	-	-	71	(29.7)	2	(33.3)
Federal statutes	1	-	1	-	4	-	6	-	14	2	26	(7.9)	2	(9.1)	119	(36.1)	7	(31.8)
Parole violation, habitual criminals and dangerous sexual offenders	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	7	-	12	(2.9)	-	-	105	(25.1)	1	(16.7)
Total	3	-	13	-	78	-	157	1	235	4	486	(11.7)	5	(7.1)	1 356	(32.7)	20	(28.6)

[1] Calculated from gender-based total for all ages.

Source: Statistics Canada, Correctional Institutions Statistics, Catalogue 85-207, 1964-65, 1972 and 1977.

TABLE A-23.2: OFFENCES BY SEX AND AGE ON ADMISSION, CANADA, 1977

Offence	16 years and under				17 years				18 - 20 years				21 - 24 years			
	M	(%)[1]	F	(%)[1]	M	(%)[1]	F	(%)[1]	M	(%)[1]	F	(%)[1]	M	(%)[1]	F	(%)[1]
1977																
Against the person	5	(0.7)	-	-	12	(1.6)	-	-	110	(4.7)	4	(16.7)	176	(23.4)	5	(20.8)
Against property	13	(0.5)	-	-	60	(2.5)	-	-	612	(25.3)	8	(22.2)	715	(29.6)	7	(19.4)
Other Criminal Code	3	(1.3)	-	-	5	(2.1)	-	-	34	(14.3)	1	(14.3)	53	(22.3)	1	(14.3)
Federal statutes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23	(5.0)	3	(9.4)	126	(27.6)	10	(31.3)
Parole violation, habitual criminals and dangerous sexual offenders	-	-	-	-	1	(0.2)	-	-	34	(5.2)	-	-	138	(21.1)	2	(16.4)
TOTAL	21	(0.5)	-	-	78	(1.7)	-	-	813	(18.0)	16	(14.3)	1 208	(26.8)	25	(22.3)

[1] Caculated from gender-based total for all ages.

Source: See Table A-23.1.

TABLE A-24: AGE OF MALES ADMITTED BY USE OF ALCOHOL AND DRUGS, CANADA, 1964-65 AND 1972[1]

Use of alcohol or drugs	15	16	17	18	19	15 - 19		20 - 24	
						Number	(%)[2]	Number	(%)[2]
1964-65									
Alcohol - Alcoholic	-	-	-	5	7	12	(2.6)	58	(12.5)
- Problem drinker	1	6	25	32	49	113	(10.4)	307	(28.3)
- No problem	7	30	91	145	154	427	(20.8)	664	(32.3)
- Not stated	1	1	-	1	-	3	(21.4)	1	(7.1)
Total	9	37	116	183	210	555	(15.3)	1 030	(28.4)
Drugs - User	-	1	2	4	6	13	(16.3)	23	(28.8)
- Addict	-	-	1	1	-	2	(2.3)	10	(11.4)
- Not indicated	7	30	99	149	176	461	(14.7)	887	(28.3)
- Not stated	2	6	14	29	28	79	(25.0)	110	(34.8)
Total	9	37	116	183	210	555	(15.3)	1 030	(28.4)
1972									
Alcohol - Alcoholic	-	-	3	5	8	16	(4.3)	62	(16.8)
- Problem drinker	-	1	10	21	28	60	(9.1)	202	(30.6)
- No problem	2	6	47	94	128	277	(13.0)	740	(34.7)
- Not stated	1	7	18	37	71	134	(13.4)	353	(35.3)
Total	3	14	78	157	235	487	(11.7)	1 357	(32.6)
Drugs - User	-	3	19	42	61	125	(19.5)	277	(43.2)
- Addict	1	-	2	7	13	23	(8.6)	93	(34.7)
- Not indicated	1	3	33	69	88	194	(8.8)	623	(28.2)
- Not stated	1	8	24	39	73	145	(14.0)	364	(35.0)
Total	3	14	78	157	235	487	(11.7)	1 357	(32.6)

[1] Female data unavailable.
[2] Calculated from gender-based total for all ages.
Source: Statistics Canada, Correctional Institutions Statistics, Catalogue 85-207, 1964-65 and 1972.

TABLE A-25.1: AGE ON ADMISSION BY SCHOOL GRADE AND SEX, CANADA, 1964-1965 AND 1972

School grade attained	15 years		16 years		17 years		18 years		19 years		15-19 years				20-24 years			
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M		F		M		F	
											#	%[2]	#	%[2]	#	%[2]	#	%[2]
1964-1965																		
Less than 5 years[1]	-	-	4	-	11	-	16	-	24	-	55	(13.9)	-	-	70	(17.7)	1	(20.0)
5-8 years	8	-	29	-	82	1	137	4	136	3	392	(18.4)	8	(22.9)	623	(29.3)	7	(20.0)
9-10 years	1	-	4	-	19	-	23	1	39	3	86	(11.9)	4	(19.1)	255	(35.3)	3	(14.3)
11-13 years	-	-	-	-	3	-	6	-	10	2	19	(6.8)	2	(22.2)	66	(23.6)	2	(22.2)
Post-secondary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	(12.5)	-	-
Not indicated	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3	(4.9)	-	-	12	(19.7)	-	-
Total	9	-	37	-	116	1	183	5	210	8	555	(15.3)	14	(19.4)	1.030	(28.4)	13	(18.1)
1972																		
Less than 5 years	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	6	-	9	(5.4)	-	-	33	(19.8)	1	(25.0)
5-8 years	2	-	6	-	34	-	57	-	79	-	178	(13.9)	-	-	385	(30.2)	4	(21.1)
9-10 years	-	-	2	-	23	-	50	1	64	2	139	(12.8)	3	(12.5)	380	(35.1)	10	(41.7)
11-13 years	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	-	15	2	24	(4.9)	2	(10.0)	162	(33.0)	4	(20.0)
Post-secondary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	(1.3)	-	-	21	(26.9)	1	(33.3)
Not indicated	1	-	6	-	19	-	40	-	70	-	136	(12.8)	-	-	376	(35.3)	-	-
Total	3	-	14	-	78	-	157	1	235	4	487	(17)	5	(11.1)	1.357	(32.6)	20	(28.6)

[1] Includes several persons declared illiterate.

[2] Calculated from gender-based totals for all ages.

Source: See Table A-24.

TABLE A-25.2: AGE ON ADMISSION BY SCHOOL GRADE AND SEX, CANADA, 1977

School grade attained	16 years and under				17 years				18-20 years				21-24 years			
	M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F	
	#	%[1]	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Less than 5 years	-	-	-	-	1	(0.6)	-	-	20	(12.3)	-	-	28	(17.2)	-	-
5-8 years	3	(0.2)	-	-	9	(0.7)	-	-	204	(16.6)	3	(20.0)	302	(24.5)	4	(26.7)
9-10 years	3	(0.2)	-	-	19	(1.4)	-	-	250	(18.8)	3	(20.0)	417	(31.4)	1	(6.7)
11-13 yeas	2	(0.3)	-	-	2	(0.3)	-	-	74	(11.5)	1	(7.7)	162	(25.2)	3	(23.1)
Post-secondary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	(3.6)	-	-	22	(15.7)	-	-
Not indicated	13	(1.3)	-	-	47	(4.7)	-	-	264	(26.2)	9	(13.6)	277	(27.5)	17	(25.8)
Total	21	(0.5)	-	-	78	(1.7)	-	-	817	(18.1)	16	(14.3)	1,208	(26.7)	25	(22.3)

[1] Calculated from gender-based totals for all ages.

Source: Statistics Canada, Correctional Institutions Statistics, Catalogue 85-207, 1977.

TABLE A-26: PREVIOUS INSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF YOUNG MALES ADMITTED,[1] BY AGE ON ADMISSION, CANADA, 1964-1965

Previous institutional history	Age								
	15	16	17	18	19	15-19		20-24	
	#	#	#	#	#	#	%[2]	#	%[2]
First commitment	8	26	78	97	74	283	(33.9)	242	(29.0)
Gaol only	-	7	24	48	62	141	(19.8)	258	(36.2)
Reformatory only	-	1	5	12	30	48	(18.8)	115	(44.9)
Penitentiary only	1	2	6	13	20	42	(17.9)	78	(33.3)
Gaol and reformatory	-	-	-	6	6	12	(4.4)	96	(35.6)
Gaol and penitentiary	-	1	2	6	17	26	(4.1)	144	(22.5)
Reformatory and penitentiary	-	-	1	-	1	2	(0.9)	56	(26.5)
Gaol, reformatory and penitentiary	-	-	-	1	-	1	(0.2)	41	(8.8)
- Total inmates having already been admitted to a penitentiary	1	3	9	20	38	71	(4.6)	319	(20.6)
- Ratio of inmates already admitted	(11.1)	(8.1)	(7.8)	(10.9)	(18.1)	(12.8)	(15.4)	(31.0)	(28.4)
Total	9	37	116	183	210	555	-	1,030	-

[1] Female data unavailable.

[2] Calculated from gender-based totals for all ages.

Source: See Table A-24.

TABLE A-27: ADMISSIONS TO PROVINCIAL INSTITUTIONS BY AGE ON ADMISSION AND SEX, NEWFOUNDLAND, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, NOVA SCOTIA, NEW BRUNSWICK AND MANITOBA, 1977

Province	16 years and under				17 years				18-20 years				21-24 years			
	M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F	
	#	%[1]	#	%[1]	#	%[1]	#	%[1]	#	%[1]	#	%[1]	#	%[1]	#	%[1]
Newfoundland	-	-	-	-	61	(5.4)	11	(17.5)	308	(27.0)	18	(28.6)	289	(25.4)	14	(22.2)
Prince Edward Island	46	(4.6)	1	(5.9)	36	(3.6)	2	(11.8)	107	(10.7)	3	(17.6)	143	(14.3)	4	(23.5)
Nova Scotia	215	(4.7)	13	(9.4)	276	(6.1)	6	(4.3)	928	(20.4)	36	(25.9)	916	(20.2)	24	(17.3)
New Brunswick	246	(5.5)	18	(9.9)	326	(7.3)	28	(15.4)	972	(21.7)	46	(25.3)	926	(20.7)	26	(14.3)
Manitoba	4	(0.1)	-	-	18	(0.6)	-	-	755	(23.6)	46	(22.5)	731	(22.9)	55	(27.0)
Total	511	(3.6)	32	(5.3)	717	(5.0)	47	(7.8)	3,070	(21.4)	149	(24.6)	3,005	(21.0)	123	(20.3)

[1] Calculated from gender-based totals for all ages.

Source: See Table A-25.2.

TABLE A-28.1: ADMISSIONS OF PERSONS REMANDED INTO CUSTODY AND CONVICTED, BY AGE ON ADMISSION, ATLANTIC PROVINCES, 1979 AND 1980

Province and age	Year	
	1979[2]	1980[2]
Newfoundland:	-	34
Under 17 years		
17 years	126	110
18-21 years	468	596
22-24 years	428	293
Total under 25 years	1,022	1,033
%[1]	(60.0)	(57.2)
Prince Edward Island:		
Under 18 years	65	105
18-20 years	228	204
21-24 years	217	185
Total under 25 years	510	494
%[1]	(45.8)	(49.3)
Nova Scotia:		
Under 18 years	660	638
18-24 years	1,981	2,097
Total under 25 years	2,641	2,735
%[1]	(56.0)	(60.0)
New Brunswick:		
16 years and under	214	246
17 years	375	343
18-20 years	1,117	1,159
21-24 years	967	969
Total under 25 years	2,673	2,717
%[1]	(56.4)	(56.1)

[1] Calculated from totals for all ages.

[2] Excluding Newfoundland: 1979-80 and 1980-81, including transfers from the province.

Source: See Table A-21.

TABLE A-28.2: ADMISSIONS OF PERSONS REMANDED INTO CUSTODY AND CONVICTED,[1] BY AGE ON ADMISSION, QUEBEC AND ONTARIO, 1979 AND 1980

Province and age	Year	
	1979[2]	1980[2]
Quebec:		
Under 18 years	88	95
18-19 years	3,169	3,807
20-24 years	9,812	10,400
Total under 25 years	13,069	14,302
%[3]	(45.0)	(45.0)
Ontario:		
Under 18 years	7,126	7,298
18 years	4,721	5,111
19-24 years	20,740	23,209
Total under 25 years	32,587	35,618
%[3]	(53.7)	(54.2)

[1] Includes temporary detainees.

[2] Excludes Ontario 1979-80 and 1980-81.

[3] Calculated from totals for all ages.

Source: See Table A-21.

TABLE A-28.3: ADMISSIONS OF PERSONS REMANDED INTO CUSTODY AND CONVICTED, BY AGE OF ADMISSION, PRAIRIE PROVINCES, 1979 AND 1980

Province and Age	Year	
	1979[2]	1980[2]
Manitoba[1]:		
Under 18 years	54	57
18-22 years	2,239	1,792
23-27 years	1,190	1,139
Total under 25 years	3,483	2,988
%[3]	(63.0)	(62.7)
Saskatchewan[4]:		
Under 18 years	868	989
18-19 years	1,367	1,303
20-24 years	2,589	2,630
Total under 25 years	4,824	4,922
%[3]	(58.6)	(56.4)
Alberta:		
15 years and under	9	9
16-17 years	1,091	1,493
18-21 years	4,985	6,315
22-24 years	2,891	3,747
Total under 25 years	8,976	11,564
%[3]	(54.3)	(55.8)

[1] Excluding Winnipeg Prevention Centre. Includes transfers and temporary detentions.

[2] Excluding Saskatchewan and Alberta: 1979-80 and 1980-81.

[3] Calculated from totals for all ages.

[4] Admissions comprise all persons admitted during the current year and those still incarcerated at the end of the preceding year.

Source: See Table A-21.

TABLE A-28.4: ADMISSIONS OF PERSONS REMANDED INTO CUSTODY AND CONVICTED, BY AGE ON ADMISSION, BRITISH COLUMBIA, YUKON AND NORTHWEST TERRITORIES, 1979-80 AND 1980-81

Province and Age	Year	
	1979	1980
British Columbia:		
Under 18 years	403	511
18-21 years	2,595	3,026
22-24 years	1,632	1,785
Total under 25 years	4,630	5,322
%[1]	(46.4)	(47.1)
Yukon:		
Under 18 years	61	57
18-20 years	103	109
21-25 years	110	132
Total under 26 years	274	298
%[1]	(59.4)	(56.8)
Northwest Territories[2]:		
Under 16 years	1	1
16-17 years	83	137
18-21 years	235	253
22-24 years	104	126
Total under 25 years	423	517
%[1]	(54.4)	(59.0)

[1] Calculated from total for all ages.

[2] Includes persons whose parole was suspended.

Source: See Table A-21.

TABLE A-29.1: AGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONS PUT ON PROBATION, ATLANTIC PROVINCES AND QUEBEC, 1979 AND 1980

Province and Age	Year	
	1979[2]	1980[2]
Newfoundland:		
Under 18 years	100	244
19-21 years	155	298
22-24 years	114	158
Total under 25 years	369	700
%[1]	(66.2)	(59.9)
Prince Edward Island:		
Under 19 years	147	211
19-21 years	74	136
22-24 years	30	58
Total under 25 years	251	405
%[1]	(73.8)	(76.7)
Nova Scotia:		
Under 19 years	1,212	1,449
19-21 years	883	740
22-24 years	409	317
Total under 25 years	2,504	2,506
%[1]	(78.3)	(77.2)
Quebec:		
Under 18 years	37	43
18-19 years	1,017	1,346
20-24 years	1,544	1,984
Total under 25 years	2,598	3,373
%[1]	(63.9)	(62.7)

[1] Calculated from totals for all ages.

[2] Excluding Newfoundland 1979-80 and 1980-81.

Source: See Table A-21.

TABLE A-29.2: AGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONS PUT ON PROBATION, SASKATCHEWAN, BRITISH COLUMBIA AND YUKON, 1979-80 AND 1980-81

Province and age	Year	
	1979-80	1980-81
Saskatchewan:		
17 years and under	708	711
18-19 years	448	442
20-24 years	551	475
Total under 25 years	1,707	1,628
%[1]	(68.8)	(76.8)
British Columbia:		
Under 18 years	2,587	1,796
18-21 years	2,137	3,752
22-24 years	1,120	1,351
Total under 25 years	5,844	6,899
%[1]	(61.9)	(61.3)
Yukon:		
Under 19 years	222	211
19-21 years	85	131
22-24 years	140	166
Total under 25 years	447	508
%[1]	(59.6)	(64.1)

[1] Calculated from totals for all ages.

Source: See Table A-21.

TABLE A-30: TYPE OF JUVENILE OFFENCE BY ETHNIC GROUP

Ethnicity		Minor theft	Major property	Status	MVA	Willful damage	Other	Total
Native	No.	10	10	5	3	4	0	32
	%	31.3	31.3	15.6	9.4	12.5	0	100.0
Non-native	No.	7	22	4	8	6	3	50
	%	14.0	44.0	8.0	16.0	12.0	6.0	100.0
Total		17	32	9	11	10	3	82

Source: Laprairie-Pitcher, 1982: 14

TABLE A-31: RECOMMENDED PROBATION FOR JUVENILES BY ETHNIC GROUP

Ethnicity		Terminate	Probation	Conditional	Susp.	Incar.	Total
Native	No.	11	17	1	2	0	31
	%	35.5	54.8	3.2	6.5	0.0	100.0
Non-native	No.	17	24	2	0	1	44
	%	34.7	49.0	4.1	0.0	2.0	100.0
Total		28	41	3	2	1	75

Source: Laprairie-Pitcher, 1982: 14.

TABLE A-32: CHARGES LAID FOR DELINQUENT ACTS COMMITTED IN 1972, BY TYPE OF DELINQUENCY, ETHNICITY, AGE AND SEX, FROBISHER BAY, NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

Type of delinquency	Distribution by age, ethnicity and sex										
	16,17	18,19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-59	60+	Total
Male Inuit											
Person + sexual		5	26	18	2	3	2	1	3		60
Property	1	4	18	10	7	10	2	1			53
Motor vehicle			11	6	2	4	1			2	26
Alcohol	14	16	46	35	10	8	7	1	1		138
Justice, drugs and others	1		9	6			2				18
Total	16	25	110	75	21	25	14	3	4	2	295
Female Inuit											
Person + sexual	3	2	4	4	1						14
Property	2	1				1					4
Motor vehicle			1								1
Alcohol	59	27	2	3	4						96
Justice	1	2	1	1				1			5
Total	65	32	8	8	5	1		1			120
Male Non Inuit											
Person + sexual		2	2	1	4	2					11
Property	2					1					3
Motor vehicle			9	8	7	4	3	4	3		38
Alcohol		1		1	5	1		1	2		11
Justice, drugs and others	3		6								9
Total	5	3	17	10	16	8	3	5	5		72
All charges											
Person + sexual	3	9	32	23	7	5	2	1	3		85
Property	5	5	18	10	7	12	2	1			60
Motor vehicle			21	14	9	8	4	4	3	2	65
Alcohol	73	44	48	39	19	9	7	3	3		245
Justice, drugs and others	5	2	16	7			2				32
Total	86	60	135	93	42	34	17	9	9	2	487

Source: Finkler, 1980: 102-103.

TABLE A-33: PERSONS CONVICTED OF DELINQUENCY IN 1972, BY NUMBER OF ACTS, ETHNICITY, AGE AND SEX, FROBISHER BAY, NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

Number of acts	Distribution by age and ethnicity										
	16,17	18,19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-59	60+	Total
Male Inuit											
1 act	12	7	14	13	8	4	2	1	2	1	64
+ 1 acts	2	5	23	13	4	4	3	1	1		56
2 acts	1	1	4	3	3	2	2	1	1		18
3 acts		1	9	4	1						15
4 acts	1	3	6				1				11
5 acts			2	1		1					4
6 acts			1	3							4
7 acts				1		1					2
8 acts			1	1							2
Total persons	14	12	37	26	12	8	5	2	3	1	120
Female Inuit											
1 act	8	3	5	1	4			1			22
+ 1 acts	11	6	1	2	1						21
2 acts	1	2		1	1						5
3 acts	4	1									5
4 acts	2		1	1							4
5 acts	2	1									3
6 acts		1									1
7 acts	1										1
10-15 acts	1	1									2
Total persons	19	9	6	3	5			1			43
Male Non Inuit											
1 act	4		7	8	3	2	3	1	5		33
+ 1 acts		1	3		3	2		1			10
2 acts			2		2	1		1			6
3 acts		1			1						2
4 acts						1					1
6 acts			1								1
Total persons	4	1	10	8	6	4	3	2	5		43
All Persons											
1 act	24	10	26	22	15	6	5	3	7	1	119
+ 1 acts	13	12	27	15	8	6	3	2	1		87
2 acts	2	3	6	4	6	3	2	2	1		29
3 acts	4	3	9	4	2						22
4 acts	3	3	7	1		1	1				16
5 acts	2	1	2	1		1					7
6 acts		1	2	3							6
7 acts	1			1		1					3
8 acts			1	1							2
10-15 acts	1	1									2
TOTAL	37	22	53	37	23	12	8	5	8	1	206

Source: Finkler, 1980: 134-135

TABLE A-34: PERSONS CONVICTED OF ONE DELINQUENT ACT COMMITTED IN 1972, BY TYPE OF DELINQUENCY, ETHNICITY, AGE AND SEX, FROBISHER BAY, NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

Type of Delinquency	Distribution by ethnicity and sex										
	16,17	18,19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-59	60+	Total
Male Inuit											
Person + sexual		2		4		1		1	2		10
Property	1	1		1		1					4
Motor vehicle			5	3	2	2	1			1	14
Alcohol	10	4	9	5	6		1				35
Drugs	1										1
Total	12	7	14	13	8	4	2	1	2	1	64
Female Inuit											
Person + sexual			4	1	1						6
Motor vehicle			1								1
Alcohol	8	3			3			1			15
Total	8	3	5	1	4			1			22
Male Non Inuit											
Person				1		1					2
Property	1										1
Motor vehicle			7	6	2	1	3	1	3		23
Alcohol				1	1				2		4
Drugs	3										3
Total	4		7	8	3	2	3	1	5		33
All persons											
Person + sexual		2	4	6	1	2		1	2		18
Property	2	1		1		1					5
Motor vehicle			13	9	4	3	4	1	3	1	38
Alcohol	18	7	9	6	10		1	1	2		54
Drugs	4										4
Total	24	10	26	22	15	6	5	3	7	1	119

Source: Finkler, 1980: 138-139

TABLE A-35: PERSONS CONVICTED OF MORE THAN ONE DELINQUENT ACT COMMITTED IN 1972, BY TYPE OF DELINQUENCY, ETHNICITY, AGE AND SEX, FROBISHER BAY, NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

Type of delinquency	Distribution by age, ethnicity and sex									
	16,17	18,19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-59	Total
Male Inuit										
Person			2	1	1		1			5
Property		1	1		1					3
Property (main off.) + one or more of following:										
Person and/or alcohol			1	1						2
Motor vehicle						1				1
Alcohol	1	1	3	4	1	1	1			12
Alcohol (main off.) + one or more of following: Person and/or property propriété et (ou) sexuel and/or sexual and/or law and justice and/or motor vehicle	1	3	9	5	1	2	1	1	1	24
Combined: person/sexual/ property/motor vehicle/ alcohol/law and justice			7	2						9
Total	2	5	23	13	4	4	3	1	1	56
Female Inuit										
Person (main off.)				1						1
Alcohol	7	1								8
Alcohol (main off.) + one or more of following: Person and/or property and/or law and justice	4	5	1	1	1					12
Total	11	6	1	2	1					21
Male Non Inuit										
Person (main off.)		1			1	1				3
Motor vehicle			1							1
Motor vehicle (main off.) + one of the following: Alcohol or person or property					2	1		1		4
Drugs			1							1
Combined: Person/justice and law/other			1							1
Total		1	3		3	2		1		10

Source: Finkler, 1980: 144-145

TABLE A-36: SERIOUS OFFENCE BY AGE ON ADMISSION, NATIVE MALES,[1] CANADA, 1977 (FEDERAL PENITENTIARIES)

Offence	16 years and under		17 years		18-20 years		21-24 years	
	#	%[2]	#	%	#	%	#	%
Against the person	3	(2.2)	4	(2.9)	26	(19.0)	32	(23.4)
Against property	3	(1.4)	9	(4.2)	62	(28.8)	72	(33.4)
Other Criminal Code	-	-	-	-	3	(15.8)	5	(26.3)
Federal statutes	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	(20.0)
Provincial statutes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Parole violation. habitual criminals and dangerous sexual offenders	-	-	1	(1.0)	7	(6.5)	23	(21.5)
Total	6	(1.2)	14	(2.9)	98	(20.4)	133	(27.7)

[1] A native inmate is one who declares himself an Indian, Inuit or Metis.
[2] Calculated from totals for all ages.

Source: See Table A-25.2.

TABLE A-37: AGE AND SEX OF HOMICIDE VICTIMS BY SUSPECT-VICTIM RELATIONSHIP TYPE, CANADA, 1962, 1972, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

Year	Relationship type	16-19 years			20-29 years		
		M	F	% M+F[1]	M	F	% M+F[1]
1962	Family relationship	14	11	(11.5)	4	13	(7.8)
	No family relationship						
	- During commission of another criminal act	2	1	(1.4)	3	3	(2.8)
	- Other	4	7	(5.1)	15	4	(8.8)
	Total	20[2]	19[2]	(18.0)[2]	22	20	(19.4)
1972	Family relationship	1	3	(0.8)	7	23	(6.3)
	No family relationship						
	- During commission of another criminal act	8	11	(4.0)	14	8	(4.6)
	- Other	8	7	(3.1)	43	10	(11.1)
	Unsolved	1	7	(1.7)	22	6	(5.8)
	Total	18	28	(9.6)	86	47	(27.8)
1977	Family relationship	7	6	(1.8)	20	28	(6.8)
	No family relationship						
	- Business or social relationship	19	8	(3.8)	53	15	(9.6)
	- During commission of another criminal act	6	4	(1.4)	12	6	(2.5)
	- No known relationship	7	1	(1.1)	16	6	(3.1)
	Unsolved	3	4	(1.1)	27	13	(5.6)
	Total	42	23	(9.2)	128	68	(27.6)
1980	Family relationship	4	5	(1.5)	8	23	(5.2)
	No family relationship						
	- Business or social relationship	11	8	(3.2)	55	21	(12.8)
	- During commission of another criminal act	1	2	(0.5)	5	3	(1.4)
	- No known relationship	6	2	(1.4)	21	1	(3.7)
	Unsolved	2	3	(0.8)	18	12	(5.1)
		24	20	(7.4)	107	60	(28.2)
1981	Family relationship	3	1	(0.6)	14	26	(6.2)
	No family relationship						
	- Business or social relationship	19	7	(4.0)	55	19	(11.4)
	- During commission of another criminal act	3	7	(1.6)	15	7	(3.4)
	- No known relationship	4	-	(0.6)	4	1	(0.8)
	Unsolved	1	5	(0.9)	23	8	(4.8)
Total		30	20	(7.7)	111	61	(26.6)

[1] Calculated from total number of victims, regardless of age.

[2] For 1962 only, the figures are for victims aged under 20 years, those for victims aged 16-19 being unavailable.

Source: Statistics Canada, Homicide Statistics, Catalogue 85-209, 1962 to 1981.

TABLE A-38: AGE, SEX AND SUSPECT-VICTIM RELATIONSHIP TYPE FOR HOMICIDE SUSPECTS REPORTED BY THE POLICE, CANADA, 1962, 1972, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

Year	Relationship type	16-19 years			20-29 years		
		M	F	% M+F[1]	M	F	% M+F[1]
1962	Family relationship	4	2	(3.2)	16	7	(12.4)
	No family relationship						
	- During commission of another criminal act	7	-	(3.8)	12	-	(6.5)
	- Other	10	-	(5.4)	15	2	(9.2)
	Total	21	2	(12.4)	43	9	(28.1)
1972	Family relationship	6	3	(2.1)	32	12	(10.5)
	No family relationship						
	- During commission of another criminal act	22	-	(5.3)	28	-	(6.7)
	- Other	28	5	(7.9)	80	4	(20.1)
	Total	56	8	(15.3)	140	16	(37.3)
1977	Family relationship	14	3	(2.5)	40	29	(10.3)
	No family relationship						
	- Business or social relationship	29	1	(4.5)	109	5	(17.0)
	- During commission of another criminal act	30	3	(4.9)	56	4	(9.0)
	- No known relationship	12	1	(2.0)	31	2	(4.9)
	Total	85	8	(13.9)	236	40	(41.2)
1980	Family relationship	13	4	(3.2)	46	10	(10.7)
	No family relationship						
	- Business or social relationship	16	3	(3.6)	83	4	(16.6)
	- During commission of another criminal act	25	1	(5.0)	46	3	(9.4)
	- No known relationship	9	1	(1.9)	37	2	(7.4)
		63	9	(13.7)	212	19	(44.1)
1981	Family relationship	5	5	(1.7)	32	20	(8.6)
	No family relationship						
	- Business or social relationship	31	12	(7.1)	101	9	(18.2)
	- During commission of another criminal act	36	3	(6.4)	53	4	(9.4)
	- No known relationship	6	1	(1.2)	19	5	(4.0)
Total		78	21	(16.4)	205	38	(40.2)

[1] Calculated from total number of suspects, regardless of age.

Source: See Table A-37.

TABLE A-39: HOMICIDE SUSPECTS AND VICTIMS BY AGE AND SEX, CANADA AND REGIONS, 1977, 1980 AND 1981

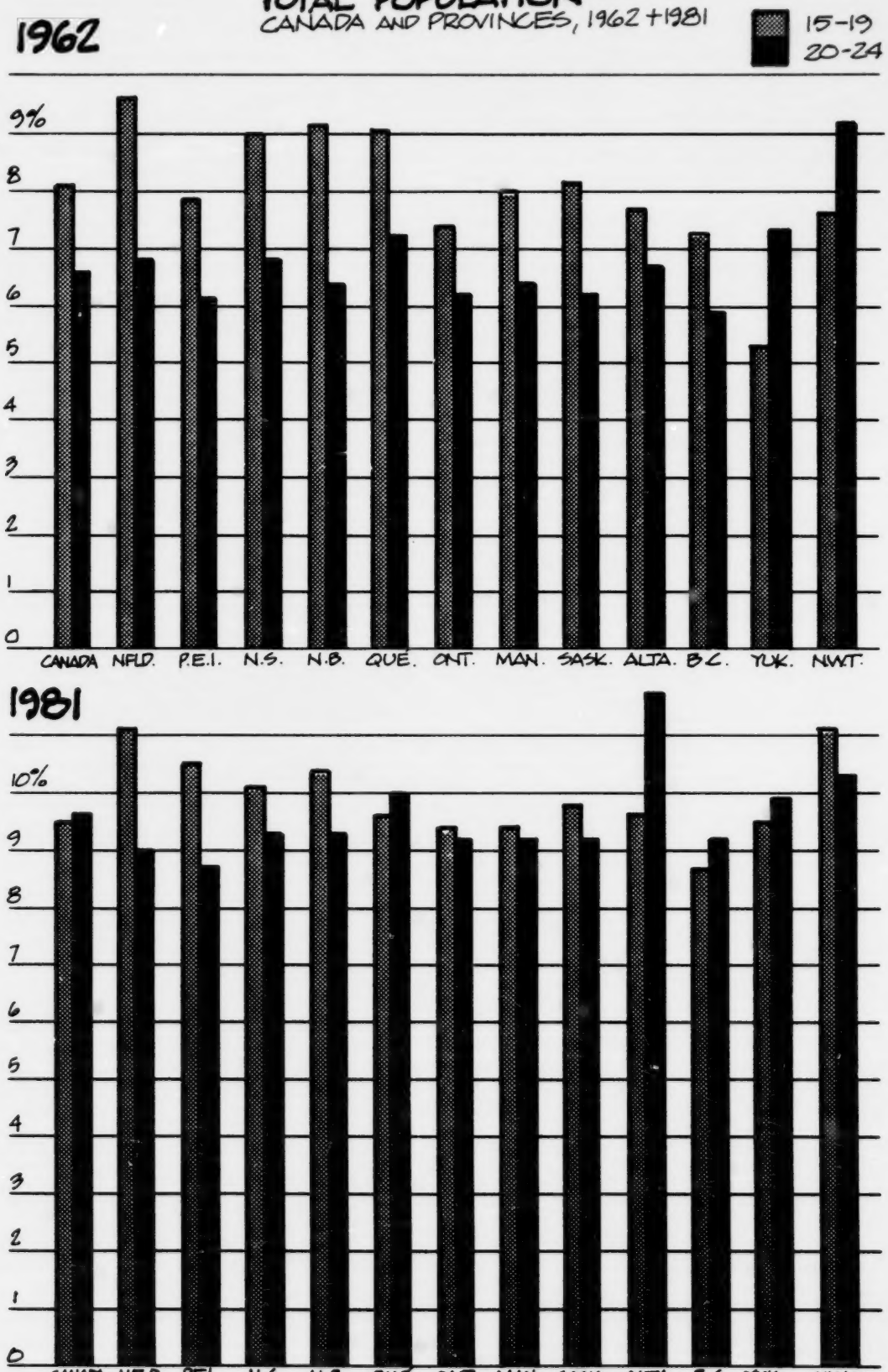
Year	Region	Suspects						Victims					
		16-19 years			20-29 years			16-19 years			20-29 years		
		M	F	% M+F[1]	M	F	% M+F[1]	M	F	% M+F[1]	M	F	% M+F[1]
1977	Atlantic	6	-	(14.0)	18	-	(41.9)	9	-	(14.8)	10	1	(18.0)
	Quebec	29	-	(18.8)	59	4	(40.9)	10	9	(9.6)	32	25	(28.9)
	Ontario	17	3	(10.9)	59	12	(38.6)	6	5	(5.7)	29	17	(24.0)
	Prairies	27	2	(14.9)	71	18	(45.6)	9	5	(8.8)	38	14	(32.5)
	British Columbia	6	3	(10.7)	25	5	(35.7)	8	4	(13.2)	18	10	(30.8)
	Yukon and Northwest Territories	-	-	-	4	1	(50.0)	-	-	-	1	1	(20.0)
	Canada	85	8	(13.9)	236	40	(41.2)	42	23	(9.1)	128	68	(27.6)
1980	Atlantic	1	1	(8.0)	11	2	(52.0)	1	-	(4.0)	5	1	(24.0)
	Quebec	11	-	(10.7)	53	5	(56.3)	10	6	(8.8)	39	15	(29.8)
	Ontario	20	4	(15.2)	61	2	(39.9)	4	6	(6.3)	29	17	(28.9)
	Prairies	23	2	(18.8)	52	7	(44.4)	6	3	(7.7)	23	12	(29.9)
	British Columbia	7	2	(9.2)	33	3	(36.7)	3	5	(7.6)	11	15	(24.8)
	Yukon and Northwest Territories	1	-	(14.3)	2	-	(28.6)	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Canada	63	9	(13.7)	212	19	(44.1)	24	20	(7.4)	107	60	(28.2)
1981	Atlantic	5	-	(17.2)	7	1	(27.6)	1	2	(9.4)	1	5	(18.8)
	Quebec	19	5	(17.7)	52	4	(41.2)	3	4	(3.8)	42	15	(30.7)
	Ontario	28	4	(16.9)	62	13	(39.7)	3	4	(4.1)	25	15	(23.5)
	Prairies	17	10	(18.4)	51	12	(42.9)	16	4	(13.9)	26	17	(29.9)
	British Columbia	9	2	(11.1)	33	6	(39.4)	7	6	(11.9)	16	8	(22.0)
	Yukon and Northwest Territories	-	-	-	-	2	(40.0)	-	-	-	1	1	(33.3)
	Canada	78	21	(16.4)	205	38	(40.2)	30	20	(7.7)	111	61	(26.6)

[1] Calculated from total number of suspects (or victims), regardless of age.

Source: See Table A-37.

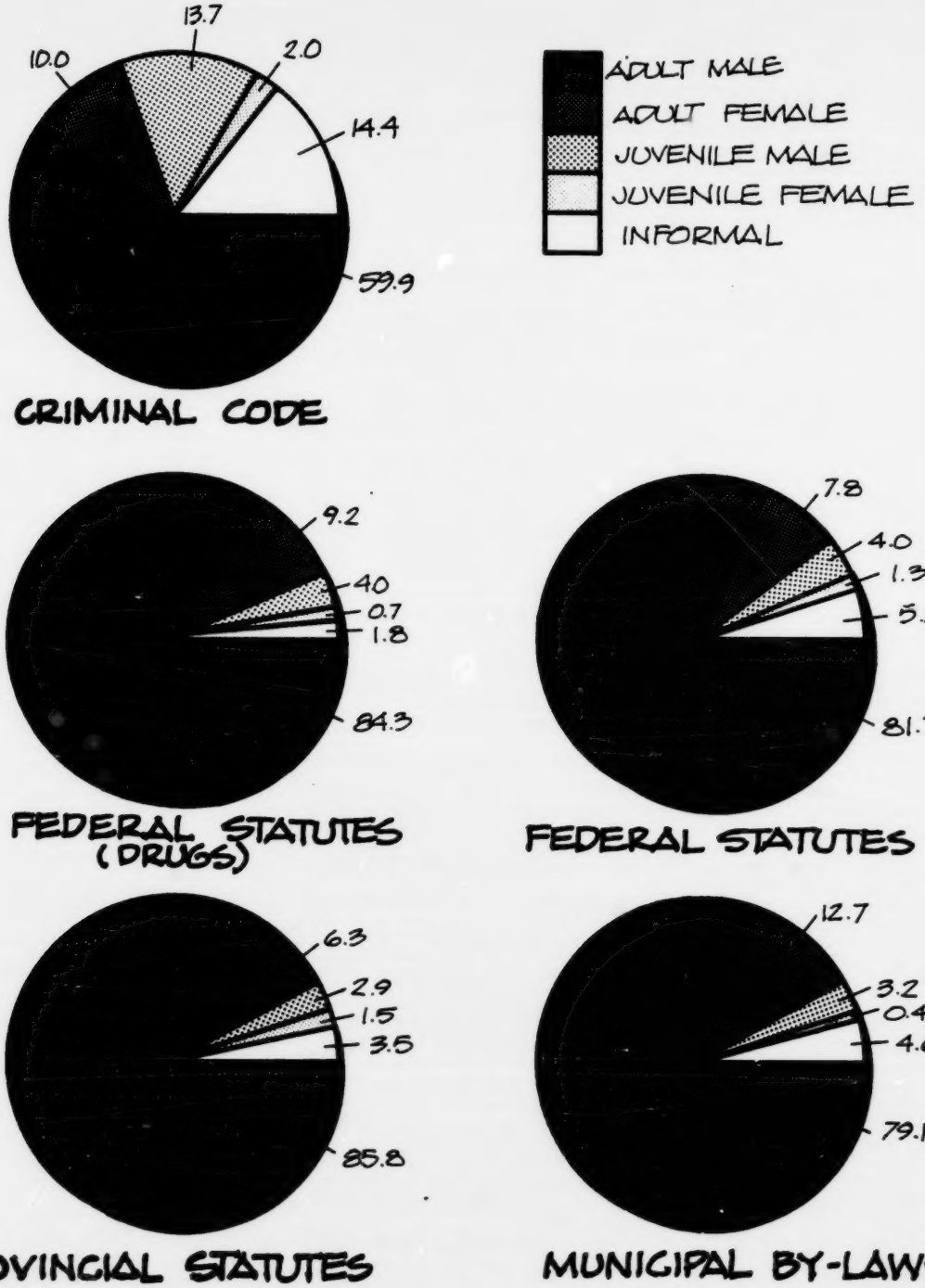
FIGURE A.1 : SHARE OF THE 15-19 YEAR OLDS AND THE 20-24 YEAR OLDS IN THE TOTAL POPULATION

CANADA AND PROVINCES, 1962 + 1981



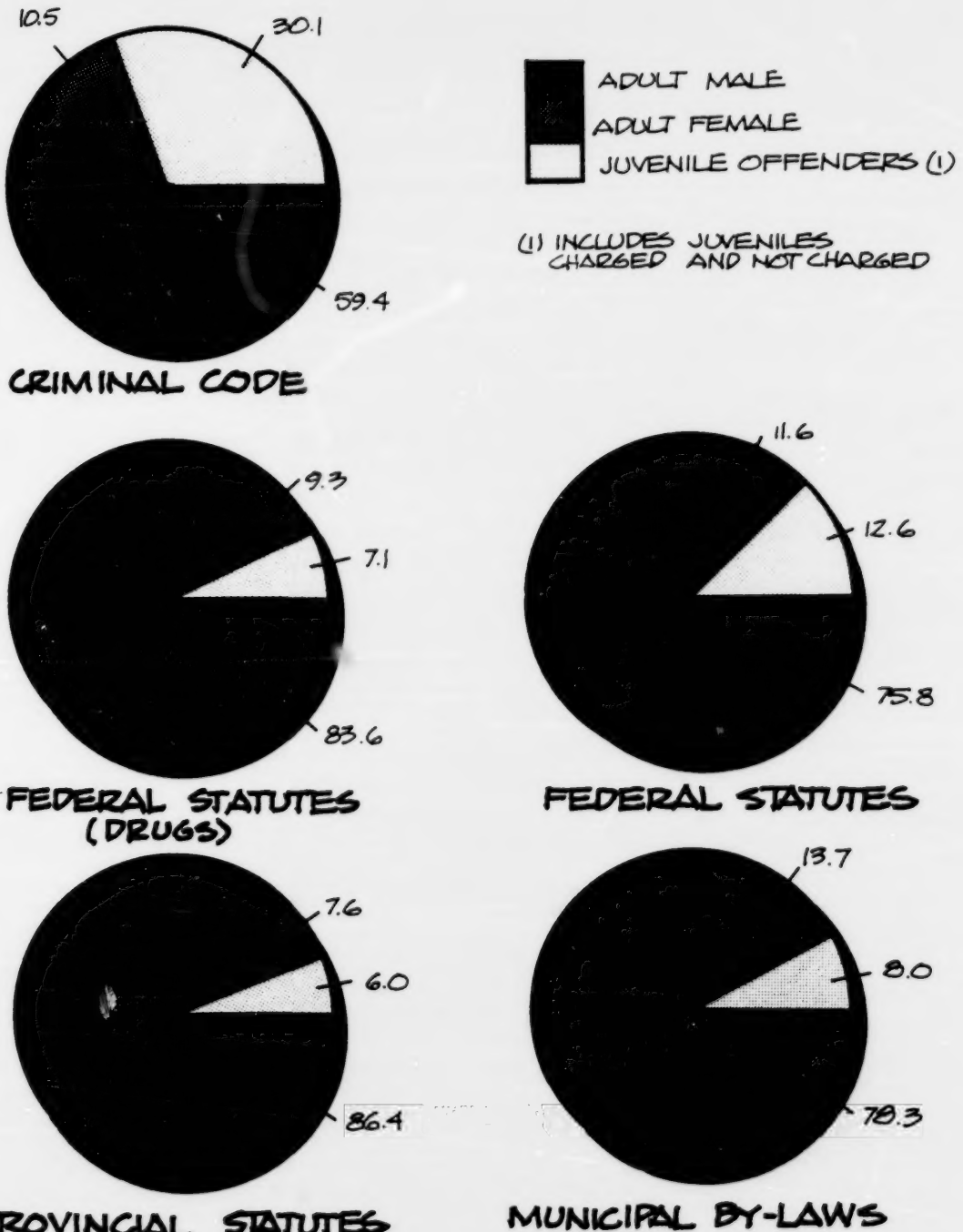
SOURCE: SEE TABLE A.4 AND 1981 CENSUS

FIGURE A-2.1 RATIO OF PERSONS REPORTED CHARGED FOR FIVE OFFENCE CATEGORIES, CANADA, 1977



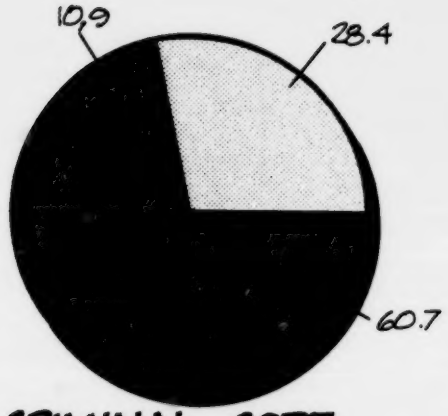
SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CRIME STATISTICS (POLICE), CATALOGUE 85-205 1977, P.33

FIGURE A-2.2: RATIO OF PERSONS CHARGED FOR FIVE OFFENCE CATEGORIES, CANADA, 1980

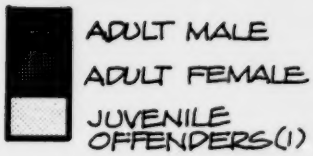


SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CRIME STATISTICS (POLICE) CATALOGUE 85-205, 1980, P.24

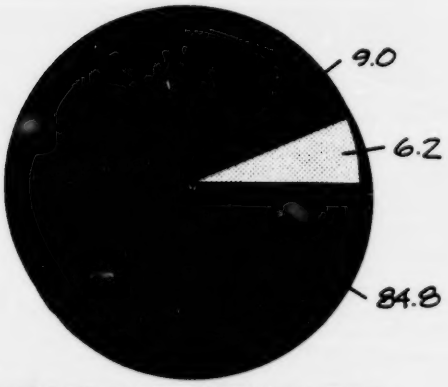
FIGURE A-2.3 RATIO OF PERSONS REPORTED CHARGED FOR FIVE OFFENCE CANADA, 1981



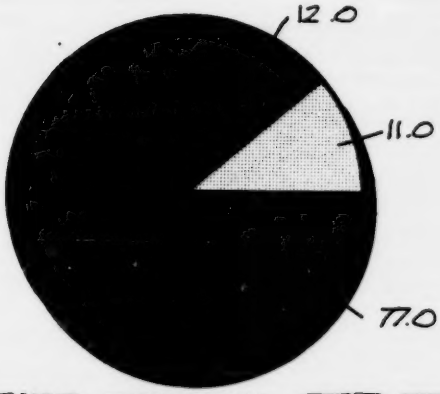
CRIMINAL CODE



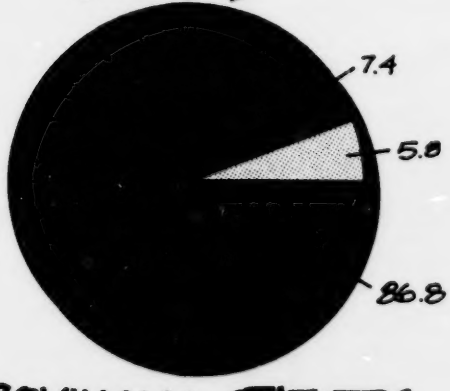
(1) INCLUDES JUVENILES CHARGED + NOT CHARGED



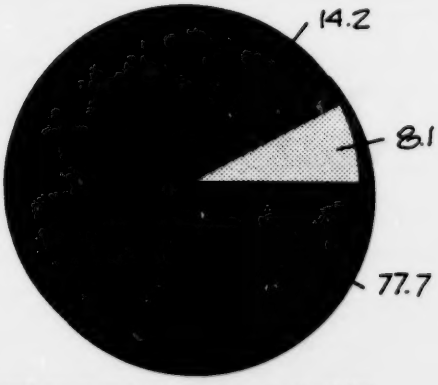
FEDERAL STATUTES (DRUGS)



OTHER FEDERAL STATUTES



PROVINCIAL STATUTES



MUNICIPAL BY-LAWS

SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CRIME STATISTICS (POLICE) CATALOGUE 85-205, 1981, P.24

DEFINITION OF THE CLASSES OF OFFENCES

1. Criminal Code

   a) Offences against the person

      - Murder, attempted murder, manslaughter, rape, other sexual offences, wounding, assaults.

   b) Offences against property with violence

      Against property with violence

      - Robbery, breaking and entering.

      Offences without violence

      - Motor vehicle theft, theft over $200, theft $200 or under, possession of stolen goods.

      Fraud and other currency-related offences

      - Fraud, swindling, counterfeiting and circulation of illegal currency.

   c) Other Criminal Code

      - All unspecified violations of the Criminal Code, except traffic offences.

2. Federal Statutes

   - Violation of the Narcotics Control Act, the Food and Drug Act or any other federal statutes (except traffic).

3. Provincial Statutes

   - Traffic violations, intoxication, truancy, etc.

4. Municipal Bylaws

   - Intoxication, traffic violations, loitering, vagrancy.

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